

CORRECT ENGLISH

COMPLETE GRAMMAR

AND DRILL BOOK

JOSEPHINE TURCK BAKER



Harold A. Sabrowsky And Son
1641 - S. 80th St.,
West Allis 14, Wis.

nd Daughter and Wife

CORRECT ENGLISH COMPLETE GRAMMAR AND DRILL BOOK

BY

JOSEPHINE TURCK BAKER

AUTHOR OF

The Correct Word: How to Use It, Correct Standardized
Pronunciation Dictionary, Correct Business Letter
Writing and Business English, Correct English in
the School, Correct English in the Home, The
Art of Social Letter Writing, The Art of
Conversation, How Can I Increase My
Vocabulary, The Literary Work-
shop, and Editor of the Maga-
zine Correct English:
How to Use It.

1.250715 1917-18-19-20-21-22-23-24-25-26-27-28-29-30-31-32-33-34-35-36-37-38-39-40-41-42-43-44-45-46-47-48-49-50-51-52-53-54-55-56-57-58-59-60-61-62-63-64-65-66-67-68-69-70-71-72-73-74-75-76-77-78-79-80-81-82-83-84-85-86-87-88-89-90-91-92-93-94-95-96-97-98-99-100-101-102-103-104-105-106-107-108-109-110-111-112-113-114-115-116-117-118-119-120-121-122-123-124-125-126-127-128-129-130-131-132-133-134-135-136-137-138-139-140-141-142-143-144-145-146-147-148-149-150-151-152-153-154-155-156-157-158-159-160-161-162-163-164-165-166-167-168-169-170-171-172-173-174-175-176-177-178-179-180-181-182-183-184-185-186-187-188-189-190-191-192-193-194-195-196-197-198-199-200-201-202-203-204-205-206-207-208-209-210-211-212-213-214-215-216-217-218-219-220-221-222-223-224-225-226-227-228-229-230-231-232-233-234-235-236-237-238-239-240-241-242-243-244-245-246-247-248-249-250-251-252-253-254-255-256-257-258-259-260-261-262-263-264-265-266-267-268-269-270-271-272-273-274-275-276-277-278-279-280-281-282-283-284-285-286-287-288-289-290-291-292-293-294-295-296-297-298-299-300-301-302-303-304-305-306-307-308-309-310-311-312-313-314-315-316-317-318-319-320-321-322-323-324-325-326-327-328-329-330-331-332-333-334-335-336-337-338-339-340-341-342-343-344-345-346-347-348-349-350-351-352-353-354-355-356-357-358-359-360-361-362-363-364-365-366-367-368-369-370-371-372-373-374-375-376-377-378-379-380-381-382-383-384-385-386-387-388-389-390-391-392-393-394-395-396-397-398-399-400-401-402-403-404-405-406-407-408-409-410-411-412-413-414-415-416-417-418-419-420-421-422-423-424-425-426-427-428-429-430-431-432-433-434-435-436-437-438-439-440-441-442-443-444-445-446-447-448-449-450-451-452-453-454-455-456-457-458-459-460-461-462-463-464-465-466-467-468-469-470-471-472-473-474-475-476-477-478-479-480-481-482-483-484-485-486-487-488-489-490-491-492-493-494-495-496-497-498-499-500-501-502-503-504-505-506-507-508-509-510-511-512-513-514-515-516-517-518-519-520-521-522-523-524-525-526-527-528-529-530-531-532-533-534-535-536-537-538-539-540-541-542-543-544-545-546-547-548-549-550-551-552-553-554-555-556-557-558-559-560-561-562-563-564-565-566-567-568-569-570-571-572-573-574-575-576-577-578-579-580-581-582-583-584-585-586-587-588-589-590-591-592-593-594-595-596-597-598-599-600-601-602-603-604-605-606-607-608-609-610-611-612-613-614-615-616-617-618-619-620-621-622-623-624-625-626-627-628-629-630-631-632-633-634-635-636-637-638-639-640-641-642-643-644-645-646-647-648-649-650-651-652-653-654-655-656-657-658-659-660-661-662-663-664-665-666-667-668-669-670-671-672-673-674-675-676-677-678-679-680-681-682-683-684-685-686-687-688-689-690-691-692-693-694-695-696-697-698-699-700-701-702-703-704-705-706-707-708-709-710-711-712-713-714-715-716-717-718-719-720-721-722-723-724-725-726-727-728-729-730-731-732-733-734-735-736-737-738-739-740-741-742-743-744-745-746-747-748-749-750-751-752-753-754-755-756-757-758-759-760-761-762-763-764-765-766-767-768-769-770-771-772-773-774-775-776-777-778-779-780-781-782-783-784-785-786-787-788-789-790-791-792-793-794-795-796-797-798-799-800-801-802-803-804-805-806-807-808-809-810-811-812-813-814-815-816-817-818-819-820-821-822-823-824-825-826-827-828-829-830-831-832-833-834-835-836-837-838-839-840-841-842-843-844-845-846-847-848-849-850-851-852-853-854-855-856-857-858-859-860-861-862-863-864-865-866-867-868-869-870-871-872-873-874-875-876-877-878-879-880-881-882-883-884-885-886-887-888-889-890-891-892-893-894-895-896-897-898-899-900-901-902-903-904-905-906-907-908-909-910-911-912-913-914-915-916-917-918-919-920-921-922-923-924-925-926-927-928-929-930-931-932-933-934-935-936-937-938-939-940-941-942-943-944-945-946-947-948-949-950-951-952-953-954-955-956-957-958-959-960-961-962-963-964-965-966-967-968-969-970-971-972-973-974-975-976-977-978-979-980-981-982-983-984-985-986-987-988-989-990-991-992-993-994-995-996-997-998-999-1000-1001-1002-1003-1004-1005-1006-1007-1008-1009-1010-1011-1012-1013-1014-1015-1016-1017-1018-1019-1020-1021-1022-1023-1024-1025-1026-1027-1028-1029-1030-1031-1032-1033-1034-1035-1036-1037-1038-1039-1040-1041-1042-1043-1044-1045-1046-1047-1048-1049-1050-1051-1052-1053-1054-1055-1056-1057-1058-1059-1060-1061-1062-1063-1064-1065-1066-1067-1068-1069-1070-1071-1072-1073-1074-1075-1076-1077-1078-1079-1080-1081-1082-1083-1084-1085-1086-1087-1088-1089-1090-1091-1092-1093-1094-1095-1096-1097-1098-1099-1100-1101-1102-1103-1104-1105-1106-1107-1108-1109-1110-1111-1112-1113-1114-1115-1116-1117-1118-1119-1120-1121-1122-1123-1124-1125-1126-1127-1128-1129-1130-1131-1132-1133-1134-1135-1136-1137-1138-1139-1140-1141-1142-1143-1144-1145-1146-1147-1148-1149-1150-1151-1152-1153-1154-1155-1156-1157-1158-1159-1160-1161-1162-1163-1164-1165-1166-1167-1168-1169-1170-1171-1172-1173-1174-1175-1176-1177-1178-1179-1180-1181-1182-1183-1184-1185-1186-1187-1188-1189-1190-1191-1192-1193-1194-1195-1196-1197-1198-1199-1200-1201-1202-1203-1204-1205-1206-1207-1208-1209-1210-1211-1212-1213-1214-1215-1216-1217-1218-1219-1220-1221-1222-1223-1224-1225-1226-1227-1228-1229-1230-1231-1232-1233-1234-1235-1236-1237-1238-1239-1240-1241-1242-1243-1244-1245-1246-1247-1248-1249-1250-1251-1252-1253-1254-1255-1256-1257-1258-1259-1260-1261-1262-1263-1264-1265-1266-1267-1268-1269-1270-1271-1272-1273-1274-1275-1276-1277-1278-1279-1280-1281-1282-1283-1284-1285-1286-1287-1288-1289-1290-1291-1292-1293-1294-1295-1296-1297-1298-1299-1300-1301-1302-1303-1304-1305-1306-1307-1308-1309-1310-1311-1312-1313-1314-1315-1316-1317-1318-1319-1320-1321-1322-1323-1324-1325-1326-1327-1328-1329-1330-1331-1332-1333-1334-1335-1336-1337-1338-1339-1340-1341-1342-1343-1344-1345-1346-1347-1348-1349-1350-1351-1352-1353-1354-1355-1356-1357-1358-1359-1360-1361-1362-1363-1364-1365-1366-1367-1368-1369-1370-1371-1372-1373-1374-1375-1376-1377-1378-1379-1380-1381-1382-1383-1384-1385-1386-1387-1388-1389-1390-1391-1392-1393-1394-1395-1396-1397-1398-1399-1400-1401-1402-1403-1404-1405-1406-1407-1408-1409-1410-1411-1412-1413-1414-1415-1416-1417-1418-1419-1420-1421-1422-1423-1424-1425-1426-1427-1428-1429-1430-1431-1432-1433-1434-1435-1436-1437-1438-1439-1440-1441-1442-1443-1444-1445-1446-1447-1448-1449-1450-1451-1452-1453-1454-1455-1456-1457-1458-1459-1460-1461-1462-1463-1464-1465-1466-1467-1468-1469-1470-1471-1472-1473-1474-1475-1476-1477-1478-1479-1480-1481-1482-1483-1484-1485-1486-1487-1488-1489-1490-1491-1492-1493-1494-1495-1496-1497-1498-1499-1500-1501-1502-1503-1504-1505-1506-1507-1508-1509-1510-1511-1512-1513-1514-1515-1516-1517-1518-1519-1520-1521-1522-1523-1524-1525-1526-1527-1528-1529-1530-1531-1532-1533-1534-1535-1536-1537-1538-1539-1540-1541-1542-1543-1544-1545-1546-1547-1548-1549-1550-1551-1552-1553-1554-1555-1556-1557-1558-1559-1560-1561-1562-1563-1564-1565-1566-1567-1568-1569-1570-1571-1572-1573-1574-1575-1576-1577-1578-1579-1580-1581-1582-1583-1584-1585-1586-1587-1588-1589-1590-1591-1592-1593-1594-1595-1596-1597-1598-1599-1600-1601-1602-1603-1604-1605-1606-1607-1608-1609-1610-1611-1612-1613-1614-1615-1616-1617-1618-1619-1620-1621-1622-1623-1624-1625-1626-1627-1628-1629-1630-1631-1632-1633-1634-1635-1636-1637-1638-1639-1640-1641-1642-1643-1644-1645-1646-1647-1648-1649-1650-1651-1652-1653-1654-1655-1656-1657-1658-1659-1660-1661-1662-1663-1664-1665-1666-1667-1668-1669-1670-1671-1672-1673-1674-1675-1676-1677-1678-1679-1680-1681-1682-1683-1684-1685-1686-1687-1688-1689-1690-1691-1692-1693-1694-1695-1696-1697-1698-1699-1700-1701-1702-1703-1704-1705-1706-1707-1708-1709-1710-1711-1712-1713-1714-1715-1716-1717-1718-1719-1720-1721-1722-1723-1724-1725-1726-1727-1728-1729-1730-1731-1732-1733-1734-1735-1736-1737-1738-1739-1740-1741-1742-1743-1744-1745-1746-1747-1748-1749-1750-1751-1752-1753-1754-1755-1756-1757-1758-1759-1760-1761-1762-1763-1764-1765-1766-1767-1768-1769-1770-1771-1772-1773-1774-1775-1776-1777-1778-1779-1780-1781-1782-1783-1784-1785-1786-1787-1788-1789-1790-1791-1792-1793-1794-1795-1796-1797-1798-1799-1800-1801-1802-1803-1804-1805-1806-1807-1808-1809-1810-1811-1812-1813-1814-1815-1816-1817-1818-1819-1820-1821-1822-1823-1824-1825-1826-1827-1828-1829-1830-1831-1832-1833-1834-1835-1836-1837-1838-1839-1840-1841-1842-1843-1844-1845-1846-1847-1848-1849-1850-1851-1852-1853-1854-1855-1856-1857-1858-1859-1860-1861-1862-1863-1864-1865-1866-1867-1868-1869-1870-1871-1872-1873-1874-1875-1876-1877-1878-1879-1880-1881-1882-1883-1884-1885-1886-1887-1888-1889-1890-1891-1892-1893-1894-1895-1896-1897-1898-1899-1900-1901-1902-1903-1904-1905-1906-1907-1908-1909-1910-1911-1912-1913-1914-1915-1916-1917-1918-1919-1920-1921-1922-1923-1924-1925-1926-1927-1928-1929-1930-1931-1932-1933-1934-1935-1936-1937-1938-1939-1940-1941-1942-1943-1944-1945-1946-1947-1948-1949-1950-1951-1952-1953-1954-1955-1956-1957-1958-1959-1960-1961-1962-1963-1964-1965-1966-1967-1968-1969-1970-1971-1972-1973-1974-1975-1976-1977-1978-1979-1980-1981-1982-1983-1984-1985-1986-1987-1988-1989-1990-1991-1992-1993-1994-1995-1996-1997-1998-1999-2000-2001-2002-2003-2004-2005-2006-2007-2008-2009-2010-2011-2012-2013-2014-2015-2016-2017-2018-2019-2020-2021-2022-2023-2024-2025-2026-2027-2028-2029-2030-2031-2032-2033-2034-2035-2036-2037-2038-2039-2040-2041-2042-2043-2044-2045-2046-2047-2048-2049-2050-2051-2052-2053-2054-2055-2056-2057-2058-2059-2060-2061-2062-2063-2064-2065-2066-2067-2068-2069-2070-2071-2072-2073-2074-2075-2076-2077-2078-2079-2080-2081-2082-2083-2084-2085-2086-2087-2088-2089-2090-2091-2092-2093-2094-2095-2096-2097-2098-2099-2100-2101-2102-2103-2104-2105-2106-2107-2108-2109-2110-2111-2112-2113-2114-2115-2116-2117-2118-2119-2120-2121-2122-2123-2124-2125-2126-2127-2128-2129-2130-2131-2132-2133-2134-2135-2136-2137-2138-2139-2140-2141-2142-2143-2144-2145-2146-2147-2148-2149-2150-2151-2152-2153-2154-2155-2156-2157-2158-2159-2160-2161-2162-2163-2164-2165-2166-2167-2168-2169-2170-2171-2172-2173-2174-2175-2176-2177-2178-2179-2180-2181-2182-2183-2184-2185-2186-2187-2188-2189-2190-2191-2192-2193-2194-2195-2196-2197-2198-2199-2200-2201-2202-2203-2204-2205-2206-2207-2208-2209-2210-2211-2212-2213-2214-2215-2216-2217-2218-2219-2220-2221-2222-2223-2224-2225-2226-2227-2228-2229-2230-2231-2232-2233-2234-2235-2236-2237-2238-2239-2240-2241-2242-2243-2244-2245-2246-2247-2248-2249-2250-2251-2252-2253-2254-2255-2256-2257-2258-2259-2260-2261-2262-2263-2264-2265-2266-2267-2268-2269-2270-2271-2272-2273-2274-2275-2276-2277-2278-2279-2280-2281-2282-2283-2284-2285-2286-2287-2288-2289-2290-2291-2292-2293-2294-2295-2296-2297-2298-2299-2300-2301-2302-2303-2304-2305-2306-2307-2308-2309-2310-2311-2312-2313-2314-2315-2316-2317-2318-2319-2320-2321-2322-2323-2324-2325-2326-2327-2328-2329-2330-2331-2332-2333-2334-2335-2336-2337-2338-2339-2340-2341-2342-2343-2344-2345-2346-2347-2348-2349-2350-2351-2352-2353-2354-2355-2356-2357-2358-2359-2360-2361-2362-2363-2364-2365-2366-2367-2368-2369-2370-2371-2372-2373-2374-2375-2376-2377-2378-2379-2380-2381-2382-2383-2384-2385-2386-2387-2388-2389-2390-2391-2392-2393-2394-2395-2396-2397-2398-2399-2400-2401-2402-2403-2404-2405-2406-2407-2408-2409-2410-2411-2412-2413-2414-2415-2416-2417-2418-2419-2420-2421-2422-2423-2424-2425-2426-2427-2428-2429-2430-2431-2432-2433-2434-2435-2436-2437-2438-2439-2440-2441-2442-2443-2444-2445-2446-2447-2448-2449-2450-2451-2452-2453-2454-2455-2456-2457-2458-2459-2460-2461-2462-2463-2464-2465-2466-2467-2468-2469-2470-2471-2472-2473-2474-2475-2476-2477-2478-2479-2480-2481-2482-2483-2484-2485-2486-2487-2488-2489-2490-2491-2492-2493-2494-2495-2496-2497-2498-2499-2500-2501-2502-2503-2504-2505-2506-2507-2508-2509-2510-2511-2512-2513-2514-2515-2516-2517-2518-2519-2520-2521-2522-2523-2524-2525-2526-2527-2528-2529-2530-2531-2532-2533-2534-2535-2536-2537-2538-2539-2540-2541-2542-2543-2544-2545-2546-2547-2548-2549-2550-2551-2552-2553-2554-2555-2556-2557-2558-2559-2560-2561-2562-2563-2564-2565-2566-2567-2568-2569-2570-2571-2572-2573-2574-2575-2576-2577-2578-2579-2580-2581-2582-2583-2584-2585-2586-2587-2588-2589-2590-2591-2592-2593-2594-2595-2596-2597-2598-2599-2600-2601-2602-2603-2604-2605-2606-2607-2608-2609-2610-2611-2612-2613-2614-2615-2616-2617-2618-2619-2620-2621-2622-2623-2624-2625-2626-2627-2628-2629-2630-2631-2632-2633-2634-2635-2636-2637-2638-2639-264

NEW EDITION 1927

COPYRIGHT, 1915

BY

JOSEPHINE TURCK BAKER

All rights reserved

The Sentence.

1. A sentence is a group of words making complete sense.

2. Every word in a sentence has one definable use.

3. A word having one definable use is termed a PART OF SPEECH.

4. There are eight parts of speech: NOUN, PRONOUN, ADJECTIVE, VERB, ADVERB, PREPOSITION, CONJUNCTION, and INTERJECTION.

Parts of Speech Defined.

1 - A NOUN is a word used as a name.

Ex.—*Tree, boy, war, North, South, East.*

2 - A PRONOUN is a word used in the place of a noun.

Ex.—*He, she, him, her, it, who, whom, they, theirs,* etc.

3 - An ADJECTIVE is a word used to qualify, limit, or define a noun.

Ex.—*She is a good girl. There are five boys in our class.*

4 - The article (*a, an, the*) was formerly classed as a distinct part of speech, but it is now defined as an adjective.

An article is a word used to limit the meaning of a noun. There are three articles: *a, an,* and *the*. *A* and *an* are called the indefinite articles, and *the* is called the definite article.

Ex.—*A bird is singing. An hour is sixty minutes. The girls are sewing.*

5- A VERB is a word used to assert or declare something about some particular thing. It expresses action, existence, or condition.

Ex.—George *walks*. Birds *sing*. He *is* here.

6- An ADVERB is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Ex.—He walks *slowly*. A *very* nice apple. He walks *very* slowly.

7- A PREPOSITION is a word used to show the relation between the noun or pronoun that follows it and some preceding word, which may be a verb, an adverb, an adjective, or a noun or pronoun.

Ex.—She is *at* home. She is sincere *in* her friendship. She took him *to* the seashore.

8- A CONJUNCTION is a word used to connect words, phrases, and clauses.

Ex.—John *and* James are going home. Either John *or* James is going home.

9- An INTERJECTION is a word used to express emotion or feeling. It has no grammatical relation to the words in the sentence.

Ex.—*Alas!* *Hurrah!* *Oh!*

The Noun.

All nouns are divided into two great classes: PROPER nouns and COMMON nouns.

A PROPER noun is a name that belongs to some particular person, place or thing; as, *Lincoln*, *Boston*, *August*, *Monday*, etc.

Sometimes a proper noun consists of several words; and when it does, it is regarded as a single noun; as, *James Lane Allen*; *Tales of a Wayside Inn*; *The Straits of Magellan*.

A COMMON noun is used as the name of a class; as, *town, month, sheep, corn, tree*, etc.

Abstract and Collective Nouns.

There are two kinds of nouns that are classified with common nouns, namely, ABSTRACT and COLLECTIVE nouns; but to avoid confusion, they will be considered as distinct, and the name *common* will not be used in connection with them.

An ABSTRACT noun is usually formed (abstracted) from either an adjective or a verb, and denotes quality or an idea; as, *goodness, wisdom* (from adjectives *good* and *wise*); *service, occupation* (from verbs *serve* and *occupy*).

A COLLECTIVE noun is a noun that signifies an aggregate or an assemblage, as, *army, senate, nation, audience*.

Number.

All nouns, with the exception of abstract nouns, may be either singular or plural.

A singular noun denotes but one; a plural noun, more than one.

A word that denotes but one is said to be in the SINGULAR NUMBER; more than one, in the PLURAL NUMBER.

Plural of Proper Nouns.

General Rule.—Proper nouns form their plural by adding *s* or *es* to the singular. (*S* is added when the singular noun does not end in *s*; *es*, when the singular noun does end in *s*.)

DRILL.

(Singular noun does not end in *s*.)

The *Lytons* have gone abroad.

The *Palmers* have returned from the East.

The *Bishops* have sold their house.

The *Shaws* have bought an automobile.

(Singular noun ends in *s*.)

The *Cummingses* will give a reception this evening.

The *Burgesses* have leased their house.

The *Knoxes* have returned from the West
(*x = ks*).

The *Ritzes* are out of town (*z = hard s*).

The *Bellowses* are to give a reception.

Specific Rule.—(a) When a proper noun is preceded by a title, the plural termination may be added either to the title or to both the title and the noun; as, The Misses Brown or The Miss Browns.

Although one may refer to the Miss Browns in conversation, one should address them in a letter as "Misses Brown."

(b) When a numeral precedes the title, only the name is made plural; as, The two Miss Browns; The two Mrs. Browns; The two Dr. Smiths.

(c) When the Christian name is given, the following forms are used: The Misses Jane and Mary Brown, or Miss Jane and Miss Mary Brown.

Note.—In the case of two or more young ladies who are members of the same family, the eldest daughter is called "Miss Brown," while

the other daughters, for example, are referred to as "Miss Mary" or "Miss Jane," as the case may require.

(d) When the title refers to several names, frequently only the title is made plural.

Those present were: Mesdames Jones, Brown, Wilkins, and Grey, and Messrs. Black, White, and Grey; Drs. Adams, Smith, and Anderson.

The *Misses Scott* have gone abroad.

The *Misses Frost* are at home from Wellesley.

The two *Miss Georges* are away at college.

Those present were *Drs. Butler, Palmer, Simmons, and Roberts.*

Those present were *Mesdames Palmer, Shaw, Bishop, Bushnell, Nightingale, Hess, and Phipps.*

The *Reverends George Scott and James Lane* are fishing in Florida.

Number of Common Nouns.

General Rule.—Nouns usually form the plural number by adding *s* or *es* to the singular; as, *boy, boys; class, classes.*

The following specific rules govern the formation of some plural nouns:

(a) Nouns that end in *y* preceded by a vowel form the plural by adding *s*, but nouns that end in *y* preceded by a consonant, form the plural by changing *y* to *i* and adding *es*; as, *alley, alleys; baby, babies.*

(b) Nouns that end in *f* or *fe* form the plural

by changing *f* or *fe* to *ve* and adding *s*; as, *beef*, *beeves*; *knife*, *knives*.

(c) Nouns that end in *o* form the plural by adding *s* or *es* according as usage has decided in each particular case; as, *cameo*, *cameos*; *calico*, *calicoes*.

DRILL.

There are several *donkeys* in the circus.

The *ladies* have gone to the club meeting.

The farmer turned the *calves* into the pasture.

The Rough Riders performed many tricks with *lassos*.

The *mulattoes* took charge of the horses.

Great *masses* of people assembled to hear the musician.

Bacon wrote many *essays*.

We have two *surreys* for sale.

The *ponies* travel rapidly.

Home-made *remedies* are the best.

We will divide the orange into *halves*.

I ordered a bushel of *potatoes*.

The *moneys* of the various nations have different values.

(*Moneys* is also written *monies*, but *moneys* is the preferred form.)

Compound nouns form the plural number sometimes (a) by making the first part of the word plural, (b) by making the second part plural, and (c) by making both parts plural.

DRILL.

(First part is made plural.)

Singular.

Plural.

My *brother-in-law* is
here.

My *brothers-in-law*
are here.

My *father-in-law* is
quite ill.

My *fathers-in-law* are
lawyers.

I have a *sister-in-law*
in Japan.

My *sisters-in-law*
were coming.

The *heir-at-law* was
in court.

The *heirs-at-law* were
in court.

The *general-in-chief*
bowed low.

The *generals-in-chief*
of both armies met.

The *man-of-war Wa-
bash* is anchored at
Charlestown.

The two *men-of-war*
collided.

The *maid-of-honor*
was late.

The *maids-of-honor*
wore blue.

DRILL.

(Second part is made plural.)

Singular.

Plural.

Use one *cupful* of
sugar, one *tea-
spoonful* of salt,
and one *teacupful*
of water.

Use two *cupfuls* of
flour, three *tea-
spoonfuls* of bak-
ing powder, and
two *teacupfuls* of
milk.

The *attorney-general*
was late.

The *attorney-gen-
erals* arrived in
time.

The *major-general* is
a relative of mine.

The *major-generals*
came on the four
o'clock train.

I have one large I have two small
bookcase. bookcases.

Drill.

(Both parts are made plural.)

Singular.

Plural.

My father is a *knight-templar*.

The *knights-templars* will have a parade.

They have one *man-servant*.

They employ two *men-servants*.

Number of Collective Nouns.

Collective nouns, unlike abstract nouns, may become plural; as, *army, armies; class, classes*.

Again, a singular collective noun, denoting a group of persons or things regarded as an entity (an abstraction considered apart from the individuals which constitute it), takes a verb in the singular number; but when the persons or things composing the group are regarded as individuals, the noun takes a verb in the plural.

Singular.

Plural.

The *army* of a country is sometimes large enough to ruin it.

The *army are* polishing *their* guns.

The *class* has been organized.

The *class are* disputing about *their* colors.

The *club* meets this evening.

The *club are* contemplating giving a dinner to *their* friends.

The *crew* is small.

The *crew were* kept busy until *they were* ready to pull out.

How <i>is your family?</i>	My <i>family are all</i>
My <i>family is</i> well.	well.
This <i>people is</i> a colored race.	Those <i>people are</i> foreigners.
The <i>nation that exists</i> must thrive.	The <i>nation are</i> all opposed to the measures.
A <i>flock of birds is flying</i> over our heads.	The <i>flock of ducks were sunning</i> themselves in the yard.
The <i>herd is</i> in the pasture.	A <i>herd of deer are feeding</i> in the park.

DRILL.

A committee *has* been appointed to draw up the resolutions.

(Committee is singular here and requires a singular verb.)

The committee *are all* of the same opinion.

(Each one expresses an opinion, making the subject plural.)

The committee *has offered* the following resolutions.

(Committee is taken as a whole.)

The board *has* adjourned.

(Not the members, but the board as a body has adjourned.)

The board all *favor* the new project.

(Each one gives an opinion.)

The jury *has rendered* a verdict.

(Thought of as an entity.)

The jury *are all* at variance with *one another*.

The class, which *has* just been graduated, is

composed of ten of the brightest young women in the city.

(Class is regarded as an entity.)

The life class, who *were* at work in another room, startled by the noise, hastened from *their* seats and rushed into an adjoining room.

(Reference is to each individual.)

The Treasury Department *has* charge of all matters connected with the collection of the public revenue.

(Regarded as an entity.)

The Erecting Department *have been working* in opposition to *one another* for several weeks and, in consequence, the work on the building has been greatly delayed.

(*Have* is the required verb; the department being divided in itself, makes it plural in form.)

Our Connellsville Plant *are attending* to this matter, and *they write* that *they* will soon be able to ship the material.

(Not the plant, but the officers are attending to the matter, hence the subject is plural.)

The syndicate *has decided* to increase its capital.

(Taken as a whole.)

The syndicate *have quarreled* among themselves and, in consequence, much trouble has ensued.

(Syndicate is divided, making a plural subject.)

Sometimes a collective noun is regarded as both singular and plural in the same construction; and, while it is best to avoid shifting the

singular to the plural number, in some instances, it seems impossible to use the same number throughout. Thus, in the following construction, the change from the singular to the plural reference seems unavoidable.

"The Megarean sect *was* founded by Euclid, not the mathematician, and *were* the happy inventors of logical syllogism of the art of quibbling."

"Their cattle *was* their chief property, and *these were* nightly exposed to the southern Borderers."

Note in connection with these examples that the shift from the singular to the plural number can hardly be avoided. In the following sentences, however, it was not necessary for the writer to change the number of either the verb or the pronoun.

Original.

"When a *nation forms* a government, it is not wisdom, but power, which *they place* in the hands of the government."

"The court, therefore, in discharge of *its duty believe*," etc.

Improved.

"When a *nation forms* a government, it is not wisdom, but power, which *it places* in the hands of the government.

"The court, therefore, in discharge of *its duty believes*," etc.

Number of Abstract Nouns.

Abstract nouns are always singular. When a

noun ordinarily abstract takes a plural form, it is no longer an abstract noun, but becomes a common noun.

Note.—When a noun denotes but one person or thing, it is called a singular noun; when it denotes more than one person or thing, it is called a plural noun.

DRILL.

Abstract (Singular).	Common (Plural).
The present <i>age</i> is an eventful one.	Man has seven <i>ages</i> .
All this is <i>folly</i> .	The <i>follies</i> of youth are many.
Men fight for <i>liberty</i> .	He took several <i>liberties</i> .
The <i>pleasures</i> of <i>memory</i> are many.	His mind is filled only with sad <i>memories</i> .
His <i>sorrow</i> is great.	<i>Sorrows</i> and <i>troubles</i> were his lot.
<i>Vice</i> is a monster.	The <i>vices</i> and <i>follies</i> of the <i>age</i> are many.
<i>Pleasure</i> is fleeting.	My <i>pleasures</i> are few.
<i>Virtue</i> has its own reward.	He had many <i>virtues</i> .
They are fighting for <i>liberty</i> .	He took too many <i>liberties</i> .
<i>Truth</i> shall prevail.	These are <i>truths</i> .

Case.

Case is that use of the noun which indicates whether the noun is a subject, an object, a predicate complement, a possessive modifier, or an appositional element.

There are three cases: NOMINATIVE, OBJECTIVE, and POSSESSIVE. Note that except when indicating possession, nouns, unlike pronouns, are not affected by case; in consequence, only the possessive case of nouns will be treated in this text. (See Case of Pronouns.)

Possessive Case.

The *possessive* case of a noun is that form of a noun by which the relation of ownership is expressed.

General Rule.—The *possessive* case of both singular and plural nouns is formed by adding to the noun the apostrophe (') and the letter "s."

Ex.—*Singular.* 1. *Boy's* hat. 2. *Girl's* dress. 3. *Child's* gloves. *Plural.* 1. *Women's* gloves. 2. *Men's* coats. 3. *Children's* dresses.

(a) When either the singular or the plural noun ends in "s," possession is indicated by adding the apostrophe, as: "Burns' Poems;" "Charles' Reign;" "ladies' suits;" "The Rug-gleses' Christmas Dinner."

Note.—In the case of singular nouns, it is also correct to add the apostrophe and the letter *s*; thus, we may write either Burns' Poems, or Burns's Poems.

(c) When the resulting sound is not euphous, only the apostrophe should be used; as, "for conscience' sake;" "For Jesus' sake." In connection with the use of the letter "s," as well as that of the apostrophe, note that if "s" is not used, the word is pronounced without the addi-

sonal sound of "es;" thus, "Burns'" would be pronounced as it is spelled, while "Burns's" would be pronounced "Burnses."

(d) When two or more nouns are used so that joint possession is indicated, the sign of the possessive is added to the last word only; thus, "A. C. McClurg & Co.'s Book Store;" "Marshall Field & Co.'s Dry Goods Store."

Note.—We say correctly, "William, Mary, and John's uncle," but not "William's, Mary's, and John's uncle."

(e) When possession is not common to both nouns, the possessive sign must be used with each noun; thus, we say correctly, "Keats' and Shelley's poems."

Note the following instructions:

"John and Mary's bicycle" (one bicycle owned jointly by John and Mary). "John's and Mary's bicycle" (one bicycle owned by John, and one by Mary). "John and Mary's bicycles" (two or more bicycles owned jointly by John and Mary). "John's and Mary's bicycles" (two or more bicycles owned by John, and two or more bicycles owned by Mary).

(f) In the case of compound nouns, the sign of the possessive is added to the last word only; thus, "An *heir-at-law's* rights," "My *father-in-law's* sister."

(g) In the case of nouns in apposition, possession may be indicated in various ways; thus, it is correct to say, "I bought the book at Thompson the bookseller's," or "I bought the book at Thompson's, the bookseller," or "I bought the book at Thompson's, the bookseller's."

Note.—If the first noun does not indicate possession, the comma is omitted before the appositive word; thus, in the first sentence, the comma is omitted before the appositive word “book-seller’s,” for the reason that the nouns are regarded for the time being as the equivalent of singular nouns.

Authorities differ as to the correctness of these forms; some giving precedence to the first and the third, others to the second and the third.

In such constructions as “My sister Mary’s servant;” “My uncle John’s horse;” “My brother Will’s carriage,” possession is indicated only by the appositive noun, for the reason that the two nouns are regarded as a single noun.

In the case of pronouns, the rule governing joint possession does not apply; thus, instead of “*You* and Black’s contract,” one properly says, “*Your* and Black’s contract.”

Another variation from the established rule is seen in the wording *whose else*; in the wording *any one else’s*, *some one else’s*, etc., possession is indicated by the second word.

DRILL.

Possessive Proper Nouns.

Mrs. *Shaw’s* home is in Toronto.

The *Lyttons’* house is for rent.

The *Palmers’* car is at the door.

The *Bishops’* house has been sold.

The *Cummingses’* reception was a delightful one.

The *Burgesses’* house is for rent.

The *Knoxes'* lot adjoins ours.

I bought the books at *A. C. McClurg & Co.'s* bookstore.

I bought the music at *Lyon & Healy's*.

I have been at my brother *Dr. John Blank's* sanatorium.

My sister *Julia's* children are ill.

My brother *Frank's* house has been sold.

King George's and *Queen Victoria's* reign were notable ones.

Possessive Common Nouns.

The *boy's* coat is torn.

The *boys'* coats are torn.

The *baby's* rattle is lost.

The *babies'* rattles are lost.

A two *weeks'* vacation is all that I ask.

I wish two *months'* time on this note.

I will give it a three *months'* trial.

He took a two *years'* lease of the house.

The *woman's* husband is here.

The *women's* husbands are here.

The *man's* hat is on the rack.

The *men's* hats are on the rack.

My cousin's books are torn.

My cousins' books are torn.

(Note.—Compare the position of the apostrophe in *man's* and *men's* with *cousin's* and *cousins'*, *woman's* and *women's*.)

Drill.

1. Mr. Jones' horse is for sale.
2. The Joneses' horse is for sale.
3. The Bertrands' party was postponed.

THE PRONOUN AND ITS CLASSIFICATIONS

A *pronoun* is a word used in place of a noun; it has the properties of the noun, viz.: *person*, *number*, *gender* and *case*. (*Pro* means *for*.)

A pronoun is used in place of a noun to avoid its repetition; as, "John gave me *his* address."

(a) Pronouns are divided into five classes:

1. Personal. 4. Indefinite.
2. Interrogative. 5. Demonstrative.
3. Relative.

The Personal Pronoun

A *personal* pronoun is used in place of the name of the person or thing that it represents.

Personal pronouns are divided into two classes: *Simple personal pronouns* and *compound personal pronouns*.

The Simple Personal Pronoun

Declension is the change undergone by pronouns to express their different relations of *person*, *number*, *gender*, and *case*.

FIRST PERSON.

	Singular Number.	Plural Number.
Case.	Nominative	I we
	Possessive	my, mine our, ours
	Objective	me us

Note.—The personal pronoun of the first and the second person may be regarded as of the common gender, unless otherwise determined by the context.

SECOND PERSON.

	Singular Number.	Plural Number.
Case. Nominative	thou	ye, you
Possessive	thy, thine	your, yours
Objective	thee	ye, you

THIRD PERSON.

Masculine Gender.

	Singular Number.	Plural Number.
Case. Nominative	he	they
Possessive	his	their, theirs
Objective	him	them

Feminine Gender.

Singular Number.	Plural Number.
she	they
her, hers	their, theirs
her	them

Neuter Gender.

Singular Number.	Plural Number.
it	they
its	their, theirs
it	them

The Compound Personal Pronoun

Nominative or Objective

	Singular Number.	Plural Number.
1st Per.	myself	ourselves
2d Per.	thyself	yourselves
3d Per.	himself, herself, itself	themselves

Note.—These forms are never used in the possessive case.

The compound personal pronouns have two uses: *reflexive* and *emphatic*.

Herself, himself, yourself, myself, etc., are properly used only in either a reflexive or an emphatic sense, as, "She hurt *herself*," "She *herself* said so," "She bought this for *herself*," *herself* referring back to the pronoun *she*. Likewise *himself* refers back to *he*; *yourself* to *you*, etc.; as "He *himself* said so," "You have no one but *yourself* to blame." Constructions in which the "self pronouns" do not refer back to the person used, are incorrect; thus: "This is for *yourself*," "With love to your mother and *yourself*, I am," etc., are incorrect.

The Interrogative Pronoun.

The interrogative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what* are declined as follows:

Singular Number.		Plural Number.		
Case.	Nominative	who	Nominative	who
	Possessive	whose	Possessive	whose
	Objective	whom	Objective	whom

(a) *Who* and *whom* are never used as modifiers, but *whose* frequently modifies a noun; as, "*Who* said so?" "For *whom* is this letter?" "*Whose* Book is this?"

(b) *Which* is used in the nominative and objective cases; as, "*Which* (nom.) is it?" "*Which* (obj.) will you have?" (This is equivalent to *you will have which?* *You* is the subject; *will have*, the verb, and *which*, the object.)

(*Which* refers to human beings, animals and things.)

(c) *Which* is used as a modifier; as, "*Which* house is it?"

(d) *What* may be used alone or as a modifier of a noun; when used alone, it is singular and neuter; when used as a modifier, it may be either singular or plural and of any gender; as, "*What* is the matter?" "*What* books have you?" "*What* person would do that?"

(e) *What* is sometimes used merely as an interjection; as, "*What!* did he not come?"

By changing the interrogative sentence to the declarative form, it becomes easy to determine the real subject; thus:

Interrogative Form.

Who is he?

Whom is this for?

Declarative Form.

He is who.

This is for whom.

Which is it?	<i>It</i> is which.
What have you?	<i>You</i> have what.
What school do you attend?	<i>You</i> do attend what school.
Whose is it?	<i>It</i> is whose.
Whose books are these?	These <i>books</i> are whose.

The Relative Pronoun.

DECLENSION.

Who and *which* are declined. *That* and *what* are not declined.

WHO			
	Singular.		Plural.
Case.	Nominative	who	who
	Possessive	whose	whose
	Objective	whom	whom
WHICH			
Case.	Nominative	which	which
	Possessive	whose	whose
	Objective	which	which

A relative pronoun always relates to an antecedent (noun or pronoun), and at the same time performs the office of a conjunction.

(a) The relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*. *As* and *but* are occasionally used as relative pronouns.

(b) The relative pronoun always relates to an antecedent (a noun or pronoun in a preceding clause), and at the same time connects the clause that it introduces with the one that contains the antecedent to which it relates; as, "I have read the book that you sent me."

That is a relative pronoun, first, because it relates to the antecedent *book*, in the preceding clause (I have read the book), and secondly, because it performs the office of a conjunction in that it connects the clause, "you sent me," which it introduces, with the clause, "I have read the book," which contains the antecedent (book) to which it relates.

(c) The compound relative pronouns are *whoso*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichever*, *whosoever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*.

Note.—*Who*, *which*, and *what* were not used in Anglo-Saxon as relatives. They were originally interrogative pronouns. *That*, originally a demonstrative pronoun, was the first to become a relative pronoun.

Examples of the correct use of the relative pronouns, *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*:

1. I gave the money to the driver, *who* will give it to his employer.
2. I brought her a book from the library, *which* she enjoyed very much.
3. This is the house *that* she bought.
4. I do not want you to repeat *what* I have told you.

(a) In the last sentence *what* is equivalent to *that which* or the *thing which*. It differs from the other relative pronouns in that *its antecedent is never expressed*, it being implied in the word itself (that which).

(b) *What* is always of the neuter gender, and is used in only the nominative and the objective case. *Who*, *whose*, and *whom* are either

masculine or feminine (common gender) and are used, respectively, in the nominative, the possessive, and the objective case.

(c) *Which* is neuter and may be used in either the nominative or the objective case.

(d) *Whose* is the form of the possessive for either *who* or *which*.

(e) *Who* is now used chiefly of persons, also of animals, and sometimes even of things, when represented with some of the attributes of humanity, and in personification or vivid description.

Ex.—(Of persons) “The man *who* would attain to greatness must be great.”

(Of animals when they are referred to as human beings) “Animals *who* by proper application of rewards and punishments may be taught any course of action.”

(In personification) “And you, ye stars, *who* slowly begin to marshal, as of old, in the fields of heaven.”

(f) *Which* is used only of animals and things.

Ex.—(Of animals) “He owns a dog, *which* has taken the first prize at every show.”

(Of things) “Unto her face she lifts her hand, *which* rests there still a space, then slowly falls.”

(g) The antecedent may also be a phrase or a clause.

Ex.—(The antecedent is a clause) “The rain washed the track, *which* delayed the train.”
The rain washed the track is a clause and is the antecedent of *which*.

Note.—Constructions of this kind are censured by some critics.

(h) *Who* and *which* should be used when a *new fact* is *added*. Thus, "I heard the story from Mrs. Black, *who* (and she) heard it from Mr. White."

Exceptions to the use of *that*:

(a) *That* cannot be used when a preposition is required before it.

(b) *That* cannot be used when the meaning is, "and he," "and she," "and it;" thus, in the sentence, "I met a man, *who* kindly showed me the way," the meaning is, "I met a man, and he kindly showed me the way." In the sentence, "I studied geometry, *which* I found difficult," the meaning is, "I studied geometry, and I found it difficult."

(c) *That* should not be used when the antecedent is modified by *that*; thus: Such constructions as, "*That* boy *who* called yesterday," "*That* book *which* you lent me," are more euphonious than "*That* boy *that* called yesterday," "*That* book *that* you lent me."

Note.—Grammarians have a tendency to use *that* strictly as a limiting or definite relative pronoun, just as *the* is used as a definite or limiting article. Inasmuch as many writers prefer to use *that* when the sense is restrictive, the following suggestions are given:

That is preferable to *who* and *which* in the following cases:

(a) When the antecedent to which it refers,

denotes both persons and things; as, "I counted the children and the dogs *that* came out to greet me."

(b) When the clause that it introduces, or of which it is the subject, limits or defines the antecedent; as, "Give me the money *that* you collected." "Bring me the book *that* is lying on the table." In both sentences, the dependent clauses, *that you collected* and *that is lying on the table*, are restrictive, *that* limiting the antecedent just as the adjective *the* in the sentence. "The minister has come," limits the meaning *by distinguishing that particular minister from the rest of his class*.

Who and *which* are preferable to *that* in the following cases:

(a) *Who* is preferable to *that* when its antecedent is already restricted. Thus, "My friend from New York *whom* I had invited to visit me, is unable to come." The antecedent of *whom* is *friend*. *Friend* is limited by *my*, hence *whom* is preferred to *that*.

(b) *Which* is preferable to *that* when it is necessary to repeat the pronoun in a subsequent clause in such constructions as, "The book *which* you lent me and to *which* you have just referred," are preferable to "The book *that* you lent me and to *which*," etc.

Note.—When a preposition is not required, *that* is preferable; as, "The book *that* you lent and *that* I have just finished," etc.

(c) *Who* is preferable to *that* after indefinite pronouns. Thus: "There are *many who* could not come;" "There are *several who* are absent;" "There are *those who* would hesitate to accept such terms, while there are *others who* would not."

(d) If the relative is separated from its verb, *who* or *which* is preferable to *that*; thus: "There are men *who*, although tempted, never fall, and *who*, no matter what influences surround them, never compromise with their ideals."

Note.—*Which* is more euphonious than *that* in such constructions as, "the objective complement is the word that completes the meaning of the verb *which* it follows."

DRILL.

This is the boy *that brought the message*. (Restrictive.)

I have studied the lessons *that you gave me*. (Restrictive.)

The boy *that was here yesterday* called again to-day. (Restrictive.)

Note.—In restrictive clauses, *who* is preferred by some writers, when the personal sense is dominant; as, "The boy *who* is studious, will improve."

I gave the book to your brother, *who will return it*. (Non-restrictive.)

I wrote several letters, *which you will find on my desk*. (Non-restrictive.)

The man, *whose name I cannot recall*, says that he is related to me. (Non-restrictive.)

The dog, *which is a St. Bernard*, saved the child's life. (Non-restrictive.)

Drills in the Use of Who, Which, What, and That.

In connection with the use of the comma preceding the relative clauses in the following, note that the comma is properly employed, only when the clause is non-restrictive (adds a new fact). Note particularly that when *and he* (*and she, and it*, etc.) can be used in place of the relative pronoun, the clause is non-restrictive (adds a new fact); thus, in the sentence, "This is the house *that Jack built*," the clause "that Jack built" is restrictive (a new fact is not added); whereas, in the sentence, "I have built several houses, *which are all in good repair*," the clause "which are all in good repair" is non-restrictive (a new fact is added).

Drill.

This is the book *that* you lent me last spring.

The house *that* you sold to me has just burned.

The book, *which* I have just bought, is lying on the table.

He owns several houses, *which* he intends to offer for sale.

The man *who* spoke to me is my uncle.

The child and the little dog *that* were seen playing in the yard, could not be found for several hours.

The books, *which* I got from the library, and to *which* I am continually referring, are of inestimable value to me.

There are those who never succeed in completing *what* they have begun.

The letter *that* you dictated to me and *that* I failed to duplicate, is nowhere to be found.

There are several ladies present *who* know nothing of the meeting.

There are some persons *who*, when they have heard a story but once, can repeat it word for word.

The accident, *which* was a horrible one, occurred on August 8.

The man *that* spoke to you was the mayor.

The fire, *which* was of incendiary origin, was at last under control.

The man *who* is honest is respected.

The boat *that* was owned by New York people, sank quickly on striking the rocks.

The horse *that* ran away was killed.

The men, *who* had been considered honest by his friends, was arrested for forgery.

The goods *that* were damaged by water, were sold at auction.

The horse, *which* is all they have left, will be sold to-morrow.

The man *that* is willing to work will generally succeed.

This is the house *that* Jack built.

DEAR MRS. BAKER:

The reception *that* I spoke of in my previous letter came off last evening. Our pastor's wife, *who* was ill, was unable to be present. The selections of the soloist and the reader, *who* were both from Philadelphia, were very entertaining. The address of welcome, *which* was made by the Sunday School Superintendent, as well as

Dr. Gaul's response, was well received. There were several cakes *that* were not used, and these were sold to some of the members of the Church. The proceeds of this sale, *which* amounted to about three dollars, reduced the expenses of the entertainment. We were busy people after the guests departed, for the dishes *that* were used in serving the ice-cream and cake had to be washed and packed. But the "aids," *who* were numerous, all helped, and the work seemed more of a pleasure than a task.

With best wishes, I remain

Cordially yours,

MARY J. BLANK.

Who and Whom.

Who, not *whom*, is required in such constructions as, "I know a man *who*, I think, will do the work for you." The rule is as follows:

Rule.—Use *who* when it is the subject of a verb. Use *whom* when it is the object of a verb or a preposition.

Caution.—Do not use *who* as an object when it is in reality the subject of a verb from which it is separated; thus: in the sentence, "I know a man *who*, I think, will do the work" *who* is the subject of *will do*, and not the object of *think*.

Who.

Who, do you think, gave this to me? (*Who gave.*)

Who, do you suppose, is in the other room? (*Who is.*)

Who, do you imagine, is the culprit? (*Who is.*)

I gave it to the gentleman *who*, you thought, was Mr. Brown. (*Who was.*)

A lady met me at the depot *who*, I understand, is your aunt. (*Who is.*)

Do you know any one *who*, you feel, would be competent to undertake this work? (*Who would be.*)

It is he *who* addressed us at the meeting; it is he *whom* you addressed. (*Who addressed and you addressed whom.*)

Whom.

This is the gentleman *whom*, I think, you meant. (*You meant whom.*)

I know a gentleman *whom*, I think, I can safely recommend. (*I can recommend whom.*)

There are several persons *whom* I should not hesitate to entrust with this commission. (*I should not hesitate to entrust whom.*)

Name some one *whom* I can engage to do this. (*I can engage whom.*)

Examples.

"There the invalid lay, and turned toward the crowd a white, suffering face, which was yet so heavenly that it comforted *whoever* looked at it. (*Whoever* is the subject of the verb *looked*. The object of the verb *comforted* is the noun clause, "Whoever looked at it.")

He offered his property to *whoever* would make the highest bid. *Whoever* is the subject

of the verb *would* make. The object of the preposition *to* is the noun clause, "Whoever would make the highest bid."

Drill.

I shall sell my property to *whoever will pay* me the most money. (Not *whomever*.)

He offered a prize to *whoever would answer* the greatest number of questions. (Not *whomever*.)

He offered his entire fortune to *whosoever would save* his child. (Not *whomsoever*.)

I invited *whoever had previously invited* me. (Not *whomever*.)

I like *whoever likes* me. (Not *whomever*.)

The same rule applies to the single form *who* and *whom*; as, "I do not know *who* is invited;" "I do not know *whom* he has invited." (He has invited *whom*.)

Relative Pronouns.

The italicized words in the following are relative pronouns and their antecedents.

"A clear fire, a clean hearth, and the rigor of the game." This was the celebrated wish of old *Sarah Battle* (now with God), *who*, next to her devotions, loved a good game of whist. She was none of your lukewarm gamesters, your half-and-half players, *who* have no objection to take a hand, if you want to make up a rubber; *who* affirm that they have no pleasure in winning; that they like to win one game and lose another; that they can while away an hour very

agreeably at a card-table, but are indifferent whether they win or no (not), and will desire an *adversary who* has slipped a wrong card to take it up and play another. These insufferable triflers are the curse of the table. One of these flies will spoil a whole lot. Of such it may be said that they do not play at cards, but only play at playing at them.

* * *

I never in my life—and I knew Sarah Battle many of the best years of it—saw her take out her snuff-box when it was her turn to play, or snuff a candle in the middle of a game, or ring for a servant till it was fairly over. She never introduced or connived at miscellaneous conversation during its progress. As she emphatically observed, cards were cards; and if I ever saw unmingled distaste in her fine last-century countenance, it was at the airs of a young gentleman of a literary turn, *who* had been with difficulty persuaded to take a hand, and *who* in his excess of candor declared that he thought there was no serious harm in unbending the mind now and then, after serious studies, in recreations of this kind! She could not bear to have her noble *occupation*, to *which* she wound up her faculties, considered in that light. It was her business, her duty, the thing she came into the world to do—and she did it. She unbent her mind afterward over a book.

The Indefinite Pronouns.

The majority of the indefinite pronouns (*one, none, some, any, aught, naught, each, either, neither, other, both*, etc.), are used both as pronouns and as adjectives. When used as pronouns they are called indefinite pronouns; when used to modify the meanings of nouns, they are called adjectives.

PRONOUNS.

One is sometimes at a loss to know what to say.

Some like him and others dislike him.

If *any* would like to speak, now is the time.

Each knew what was in the other's hand.

Either might have been in error.

Neither knew his own mind.

ADJECTIVES.

There was only *one* person there.

Some persons would like to do so.

Is there *any* hope for him?

Any may be used with either a singular or a plural noun. When used with a singular noun, it generally implies quantity; with a plural noun, number. Thus: "Is there *any* sugar?" "Are there *any* knives on the table?"

Either and *neither*, when used as pronouns or adjectives, should never be used of more than two persons or things. As conjunctions they may be used of more than two persons or things.

Let *each* student think for himself.

Either book will do.

Neither book will do.

Note.—In the following sentences, *either* and *neither* are used as conjunctions:

Either John, Henry, or James can go.

Neither John, Henry, nor James can go.

When *other* is a pronoun, it may indicate possession (other's) and may take a plural number (others).

Concord of Noun and Pronoun.

Rule.—A pronoun must agree with its antecedent noun in number.

Any One or Anybody.

DRILL.

Note.—The present tendency is to prefer *anyone*, *everyone*, *someone*, written each as one word.

If *any one* wishes to absent *himself*, I wish that *he* would inform me now. (Not *they*.)

If *any one* objects to my going, I wish that *he* would say so. (Not *they*.)

May *any one* come if *he* brings a letter of introduction? (Not *they*.)

How can *any one* refuse to give *his* permission under the circumstances? (Not *their*.)

If *any one* wishes to leave the room, may *he* do so? (Not *they*.)

If *any one* wishes to bring a guest, may *he* do so? (Not *they*.)

Rule.—Use the masculine gender when speaking generally of people, or when addressing a body of men; the feminine gender when addressing a body of women; the masculine and the

feminine when addressing both sexes, unless the statement is long; in that case, the masculine gender should be used.

DRILL.

Any one else would have acted the same way if *he* had been present. (General reference.)

If *any one* present has any objections to offer, I wish that *he* would make them now. (Body of men.)

If *any one* present has any objections to offer, I wish that *she* would make them now. (Body of women.)

If *any one* present has any objections to offer, I wish that *he* or *she* would make them now. (Body of men and women.)

If *any one* feels that *he* has not been treated fairly, I wish that he would give *his* name and address to the secretary, who will enter *his* complaint. (Body composed of men and women. [Long statement.])

Note.—Even in short statements, it is not uncommon to use the masculine gender in addressing an assemblage of both sexes, the masculine including the feminine. Thus: “If *any one* present has any complaints to offer, I wish that *he* would make them now.” (Both sexes.)

DRILL.

If *any one* else could have done this, I should gladly have asked *him* to do it. (Reference is general.)

How could *any one* refuse to offer *his* assist-

ance under the circumstances? (Reference is general.)

If *any one* present has lost his umbrella, I wish that *he* would rise. (Body of men.)

If *any one* present has lost *her* umbrella, I wish that *she* would rise. (Body of women.)

If *any one* present has lost *his* or *her* umbrella, I wish that *he* or *she* would rise. (Body of men and women.)

Note.—Many would prefer to use only the masculine gender in the last sentence.

Anybody in *his* right senses would have done the same thing. (Not *their*.)

Anybody else could have done as well if *he* had had the same opportunity. (Not *they*.)

Note.—*Anybody*, meaning *any* person, is interchangeable with *any one*, the forms being equally correct. In the sentence, "Everybody who is *anybody* was present" *anybody* is used in the sense of *a person of some consequence*, as opposed to *nobody*.

Each, Each One; Each Person, Each Student.

DRILL.

Each was asked to give *his* opinion. (Not *their*.)

Each was asked to give *her* opinion. (Not *their*.)

Each was asked to give *his* or *her* opinion. (Not *their*.)

Each one of the gentlemen was asked to give *his* opinion. (Not *their*.)

Each one of the ladies was asked to give *her* opinion. (Not *their*.)

Each one was asked to give *his* or *her* opinion. (Not *their*.)

I wish that *each* person would make *his* complaint to me. (Not *their*.)

I wish that *each student* present would take *his* books home. (Not *their*.)

I wish that *each student* present would take *her* books home. (Not *their*.)

Every One or Everybody; Every Person, Every Student.

DRILL.

I wish that *every one* present would leave *his* hat in the anteroom. (Not *their*.)

I wish that *every one* present would leave *her* hat in the anteroom. (Not *their*.)

I wish that *every one* present would leave *his* or *her* hat in the anteroom. (Not *their*.)

If *every one* would do as I have done, *he* would have no cause to complain. (Not *they*.)

Every one has a day from which *he* dates *his* success or failure, as the case may be. (Not *their*.)

Every one must act according to his conscience. (Not *their*.)

Note.—*Everybody* is used interchangeably with *every one*, the forms being equally correct.

I wish that *every person* in this room would give *his* attention to this matter. (Not *their*.)

I wish that *every person* in this room would give *her* attention to this matter. (Not *their*.)

I wish that *every person* in this room would give *his* or *her* attention to this matter. (Not *their*.)

Note.—In the last sentence, many would prefer to use only the masculine. In the following, *his* is required because the statement is long:

“I wish that every person in this room would give the matter *his* attention, and then inform me what *his* opinion is on the subject.”

I wish that *every student* in this school would give *his* attention to this matter. (Not *their*.)

I wish that *every student* in this school would give *her* attention to this matter. (Not *their*.)

I wish that *every student* in this school would give *his* or *her* attention to this matter. (Not *their*.)

In the last sentence, many would prefer to use only the masculine. In the following, the masculine gender is required because the statement is long:

“I wish that *every student* in this school would give this matter *his* attention, and then inform me what *his* opinion is on the subject.”

No One or Nobody; No Person, No Student.

DRILL.

No one should interfere in this matter unless *he* is authorized to do so. (Not *they*.)

No one must come without *his* parents' consent. (Not *their*.)

No one must absent *himself* without *his* parents' consent. (Not *themselves* or *their*.)

No one must absent *herself* without *her* parents' consent. (Not *themselves* or *their*.)

No one must absent *himself* or *herself* without my permission. (Not *themselves*.)

No person should interfere in this matter unless *he* is authorized to do so. (Not *they*.)

No student must absent *himself* without *his* parents' permission. (Not *themselves* or *their*.)

No student must absent *herself* without *her* parents' consent. (Not *themselves* or *their*.)

Note.—In an extended statement, use the masculine for both sexes.

DRILL.

No one must absent *himself* unless *he* obtains *his* parents' consent. (Both sexes.)

No person must absent *himself* unless *he* obtains *his* parents' consent. (Both sexes.)

No student must absent *himself* unless *he* obtains *his* parents' consent. (Both sexes.)

Note that the following would be awkward: "*No one* must absent *himself* or *herself* unless *he* or *she* obtains *his* or *her* parents' consent;" or "*no one* must absent *himself* or *herself* without *his* or *her* parents' consent."

As indicated, in cases of this kind, the masculine includes the feminine, it being correct to use only the masculine, whether the statement is short or long.

Note.—*Nobody*, in the sense of *no person*, is interchangeable with *no one* unless used to mean a *person* of no consequence; as, "*She's a nobody*."

Nobody has any idea of how a person feels

under these circumstances, unless *he* has had the same experience. (Not *they*.)

Nobody should give advice in a matter of this kind, unless *he* has informed *himself* upon all the points involved. (Not *they*.)

Nobody should censure the conduct of another, for *he* is never in possession of all the facts of another's life. (Not *they*.)

Nobody is to know anything about this unless he accidentally discovers the secret. (Not *they*.)

Note.—In all the foregoing sentences, the reference is to people generally. If specific, the same rules govern as in the case of *no one*, *his*, *her*, etc., being used as the construction may require.

Some One or Somebody; Some Person, Some Student.

DRILL.

Some one has called and has left *his* card. (Not *their*.)

Some one has evidently been interfering in matters that do not concern *him*. (Not *them*.)

Some one has evidently been here in our absence, for *he* has left the door open. (Not *they*.)

If *some one* should call in my absence, tell *him* to wait. (Not *them*.)

Note.—In all the foregoing, the reference is general; hence, the masculine gender is required. In the following, the reference is specific.

DRILL.

Some one present has left *his* books on my desk. (Masculine only.)

Some one present has left *her* books on my desk. (Feminine only.)

Some one present has left *his* or *her* books on my desk. (Both sexes.)

I wish that *some one* present would offer *his* assistance. (Masculine only.)

I wish that *some one* present would offer *her* assistance. (Feminine only.)

I wish that *some one* present would offer *his* or *her* assistance. (Both sexes.)

Will *some one* give *his* opinion about this matter? (Masculine only.)

Will *some one* give *her* opinion about the matter? (Feminine only.)

Will *some one* give *his* or *her* opinion about this matter? (Both sexes.)

I wish that *some one* present would offer *his* assistance. (Not *their*.)

Do you know of *some person* who will give *his* undivided attention to this matter?

I wish that I could get *some student* to teach the children after *his* study hours are over. (Not *their*.)

Note.—*Somebody* is interchangeably used with *some one*, the form being equally correct.

Somebody has called and has left *his* card. (Not *their*.)

Somebody has evidently been interfering in matters that do not concern *him*. (Not *them*.)

Note.—In connection with the use of *any one*, *everyone* *no one*, *some one*, (or *anybody*, *everybody*, *nobody*, *somebody*), followed by *else*, note that when in the possessive case, *else*, and not the pronoun, takes the possessive sign.

DRILL.

Any one else's (or *anybody else's*) umbrella will answer my purpose.

Every one else's (or *everybody else's*) books are soiled.

No one else's (or *nobody else's*) children act so.

Some one else's (or *somebody else's*) pen will do as well.

Note.—After *any one*, *each one*, *every one*, *some one* or *anybody*, *everybody*, *somebody*, *he*, *his*, or *him* is used when the reference is general. After *one*, however, *one* or *one's* is preferable to *he*, *his* or *him*.

DRILL.

When *one* has determined upon a certain course of action or conduct, *one* dislikes to change it. (Not *they*.)

One can learn much if *one* is a good listener. (Not *they*.)

"It takes away much of the flavor of life to live amongst those with whom *one* has not anything like *one's* fair value. (Not *they* or *their*.)

One should look out for *one's* self. (Not *themselves*.)

When *one* is in the right, *one* should not hesitate to say so. (Not *they*.)

Even though *one* is unsuccessful, *one* should not be envious of the success of another. (Not *they*.)

One should do all that *one* can to alleviate the suffering of those about *one*. (Not *they* or *them*.)

Note.—In the last sentence and in like extended statements, the use of *person* (or *student*, etc.) enables the speaker (or the writer) to avoid an excessive repetition of *one*. Thus: Instead of using the pronoun *one*, *person* and *student* may be respectively used in the following:

"I like to see a *person* who says what *he* thinks, and who, when *he* finds *himself* in the wrong, is not afraid to acknowledge his mistake."

"Let the *student* often stop and examine *himself* upon what *he* has read. Let *him* cultivate intercourse with others pursuing the same studies, and converse with them frequently upon the subject of reading."

Note.—In connection with the spelling of *one's self*, note that *one's self* and *oneself* are equally correct.

The demonstrative pronouns, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, when used alone, are pronouns, but when they modify nouns they are adjectives; as, "*This* (adjective) hat is mine." "*This* (pronoun) is my hat."

Grammarians differ greatly in their classification of these words. Some call them pronouns; some, adjectives; some, adjective pronouns; and others, *pronominal adjectives*.

Declension.

The demonstrative pronouns are unaffected by case. The singular *this* and *that*, and the plural *these* and *those*, are the same in the nominative and the objective case. They have no possessive form.

This and *these* refer to the nearer, *that* and *those* to the more distant; as, "*This* is my hat," "*These* are my rubbers," "*That* is my coat," "*Those* are my gloves."

That or *those* is sometimes used to prevent the repetition of a preceding noun; as, "This house is larger than *that* mentioned in his letter." "The apples are larger than *those* on the tree."

The one is frequently used instead of *that*; as, "This house is larger than *the one* mentioned in his letter."

This or *that* is sometimes used to prevent the repetition of a preceding word, phrase, or clause; as, "To alleviate the sufferings of the poor and needy; to minister daily to their wants, *this* was her highest ambition." "To swear falsely! *That* is something I would not do."

**Concord of Noun and Pronoun When the
Latter Becomes An Adjective Modifier:
This Kind, That Kind; These Kinds,
Those Kinds.**

Rule.—Use *this* and *that* with *kind*; *these* and *those* with *kinds*.

These Kinds—Drill.

Note.—Use *this* and *these* of objects at hand; *that* and *those* of objects remote.

Do you like *these kinds* of books? (Not *these kind*.)

Do you like *these kinds* of pictures? (Not *these kind*.)

Do you like *these kinds* of oranges? (Not *these kind*.)

Do you like *these kinds* of coats? (Not *these kind*.)

I do not like *these kinds* of books. (Not *these kind*.)

I do not like *these kinds* of pictures. (Not *these kind*.)

I do not like *these kinds* of oranges. (Not *these kind*.)

I do not like *these kinds* of coats. (Not *these kind*.)

Those Kinds—Drill.

Do you like *those kinds* of books? (Not *those kind*.)

Do you like *those kinds* of pictures? (Not *those kind*.)

Do you like *those kinds* of oranges? (Not *those kind*.)

Do you like *those kinds* of coats? (Not *those kind*.)

I do not like *those kinds* of books. (Not *those kind*.)

I do not like *those kinds* of pictures. (Not *those kind*.)

I do not like *those kinds* of oranges. (Not *those kind*.)

I do not like *those kinds* of coats. (Not *those kind*.)

Note.—While *these* or *those kinds* is frequently used when referring only to *one kind*, in strict usage *this* or *that kind* should be used, unless different kinds are meant. Thus: One should say, "This (or that) kind of book," or "Books of this (or that) kind" (one kind). "These or those kinds of books" (several kinds).

Note.—*A* is frequently misused after "kind of;" thus: "I do not like that kind of *a* man," for "I do not like that *kind of* man."

DRILL.

I do not like *that kind of* story. (Not *kind of a* or *kind o' [kinda]*.)

I do not like *that kind of* novel. (Not *kind of a* or *kind o' [kinda]*.)

I do not like *that kind of* shoe. (Not *kind of a* or *kind o' [kinda]*.)

I do not like *that kind of* entertainment. (Not *kind of a* or *kind o' [kinda]*.)

I do not like *that kind of* orange. (Not *kind of a* or *kind o' [kinda]*.)

I do not like *that kind of* coat. (Not *kind of a* or *kind o' [kinda]*.)

I do not like *this kind of* apple. (Not *kind of a* or *kind o' [kinda]*.)

Note.—*Sort* and *style* follow the same rules that govern *kind*.

Do you like *those sorts of* things? (Different sorts.)

Do you like *that sort of* thing? (One sort.)

Do you like *those sorts of* people? (Different sorts.)

Do you like *that sort of* person? (One sort.)

I do not like *those sorts of* things. (Different sorts.)

I do not like *that sort of* thing. (One sort.)

I do not like *those sorts of* people. (Different sorts.)

I do not like *that sort of* person. (One sort.)

Note.—*A* is superfluous after *sort*; thus: "I do not like *that sort of* book." (Not *sort of a* or *sort o' [sorta']*.)

Style—Drill.

Do you like *these styles of* gloves? (Different styles.)

Do you like *those styles of* gloves? (Different styles.)

Do you like *this style of* dress? (One style.)

Do you like *that style of* dress? (One style.)

Do you like *those styles of* shoes? (Different styles.)

Do you like *that style* of shoe? (One kind.)

Do you like *those styles* of gloves? (Different styles.)

Do you like *that style* of glove? (One style.)

Note.—*A* is superfluous after style of; thus: “I do not like *that style of* hat,” not “I do not like *that style of a* hat.”

Note.—In the foregoing sentences, *kind* and *sort* are used in the sense of *class*, or *species*; when used to express mere variety or resemblance to something, *kind* and *sort* are regarded as somewhat idiomatically employed, thus: “He has a *kind of* cold;” “He has a *sort of* low fever.” When *kind* or *sort* precede an adjective or a verb, they are regarded as loosely employed; thus: “He is *kind of* ill;” “He is *kind of* languid.” (*Kind o’* ill and *kind o’* languid are unpardonable.)

Note.—Instead of saying, “I am *kind of* tired,” say, “I am *somewhat* tired.”

(Further drills.)

He is *somewhat* lazy. (Not *kind of*.)

I am *somewhat* sleepy. (Not *kind of*.)

He is *somewhat* tiresome. (Not *kind of*.)

I am *somewhat* ill. (Not *kind of*.)

Some Kinds; All Kinds.

(Drill.)

I like *some kinds* of apples. (Not *some kind*.)

I like *some kinds* of books. (Not *some kind*.)

I like *some kinds* of novels. (Not *some kind*.)

I like *some kinds* of oranges. (Not *some kind*.)

I like *all kinds* of books. (Not *all kind*.)

I like *all kinds* of novels. (Not *all kind*.)

I like *all kinds* of plays. (Not *all kind*.)

I like *all kinds* of oranges. (Not *all kind*.)

I like *all kinds* of vegetables. (Not *all kind*.)

I like *all kinds* of apples. (Not *all kind*.)

They, Them; These, Those.

Rule.—Use *these* and *those* to point out an object. Use *they* and *them* to refer to an object already indicated.

These and *those* are always used as demonstrative pronouns; that is, to point out or indicate an object. *They* and *them* are properly used only when referring to objects already mentioned.

In the sentence, "Those two books,—were they on your desk?" *those* points out the books, while *they* refers to *them*.

DRILL.

These pears are ripe. Aren't *they* delicious?

Just look at *those* two dancing. What are *they* dancing? (*Those* points out the couple; *they* refers to the couple already mentioned.)

These are your rubbers. You should not have put *them* here.

Why did you buy *those* shoes. *They* do not fit you.

Do be careful not to harm *those* who trust you.

Do not set a bad example for *those* who look to you as their model.

Are *those* young girls your friends? Ask *them* to call again.

The Adjective.

An *adjective* is a word that is used to qualify or limit a noun.

(a) *Adjectives may be divided into two classes: qualifying adjectives and limiting adjectives.*

An adjective qualifies a noun when it attributes some quality to the noun.

Ex.—A *pretty* girl; a *good* boy; a *large* house; a *sweet* apple.

(a) An adjective of quality may be used sometimes as an adjective, and sometimes as a noun; as an adjective, "*English* law," "*French* literature;" as a noun, "*The English*," "*The French*."

(b) An adjective of quality may be derived from a noun; as, "*The Elizabethan* age;" "*Baconian* philosophy."

An adjective limits a noun when it restricts or defines its meaning as to quantity or number.

(a) Adjectives that limit nouns as to quantity are called Numeral Adjectives of Quantity; as, *much*, *little*, *enough*, *all*, etc.

(b) Adjectives that limit nouns as to number are called Numeral Adjectives; as *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, etc. (cardinal numbers); and *first*, *second*, *third*, *fourth*, etc. (numeral numbers).

Pronominal Adjectives.

A *pronominal* adjective is a pronoun used as an adjective. Thus:

(a) A demonstrative pronoun may be used as an adjective; as "*This* hat;" "*these* books;"

"that coat;" "those shoes;" "yonder house;" "such happiness."

(b) An interrogative pronoun may be used as an adjective; as "*What* joy;" "*which* book."

Note.—*Who* is never used as an adjective.

(c) A personal pronoun may be used as an adjective; as, "*My* child;" "*our* home;" "*your* house;" "*his* father;" "*her* mother;" "*its* uses;" "*their* property."

(d) The possessives, *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, have distinct uses. Thus, in the sentence, "This book is mine," the pronoun *mine* is equivalent to the pronoun *my* used as adjective and the noun *book* understood. Thus, "This book is mine" (*my* book); "This book is yours" (*your* book); "This house is ours" (*our* house).

Note.—While the construction, "This book of mine," is equivalent to "This book is my book," there are some expressions where it is difficult to explain the ellipsis. Thus, we can readily see that "This heart is *mine*," can mean "This heart is my heart"—meaning possession, but in the idiom, "This heart of mine (is breaking)," it is difficult to explain the ellipsis. It is thought that the idiom is the result of the mixture of two constructions, a pure possessive and an adjective phrase.

(e) The possessive form *whose* of the relative pronoun (who or which) may be used as an adjective; as, "The man *whose* horse was stolen is at the door."

(f) The use of *whose* when referring to inanimate things is censured by some critics, but it is now regarded as in accordance with good usage, especially in such constructions as "Poetry *whose* chief purpose is to exalt," etc.

It is common, however, especially in prose, to use the phrase "of which" when referring to things without life.

Pronominal adjectives are called by some grammarians, *demonstrative* adjectives, because they point out the noun from the members of its class.

Comparison of Adjectives.

Some adjectives undergo changes to indicate the degree or relative amount of the quality or the quantity.

(a) There are three degrees of comparison: the *positive*, the *comparative* and the *superlative*; as, positive, *bright*; comparative, *brighter*; superlative, *brightest*.

Rule 1. Adjectives of one syllable, and many adjectives of two syllables, usually add "er" to the positive to form the comparative, and "est" to form the superlative.

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
bright	brighter	brightest
sour	sourer	sourest
slow	slower	slowest
cold	colder	coldest

Rule 2. Adjectives of more than two syllables usually form the comparative and superlative degrees by prefixing *more* and *most* or *less* and *least* to the simple form of the adjective.

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
wonderful	less wonderful	least wonderful

(b) Some adjectives, few in number, but of very frequent occurrence, are irregular in their comparison. The most important are as follows:

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
good	better	best
bad, ill or evil	worse	worst
little	less	least
much	more	most
many	more	most
late	later, latter	latest, last
far	farther	farthest
near	nearer	nearest
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
forth, adv.	further	furthest
fore	former	foremost, first
hind	hinder	hindmost
in, adv.	inner	inmost, innermost
out, adv.	outer, utter	outmost, outermost
		utmost, uttermost
neath, prep.	nether	nethermost
up	upper	upmost, uppermost
nigh	nigher	nighest, next
top, noun		topmost

(c) The double comparatives *worser* and *lesser* are now seldom used; as, "Of two evils choose the *lesser*."

(b) *Older* and *oldest* are used of both persons and things; *elder* and *eldest* of persons only; as, "My *eldest* sister."

The terms *elder* and *eldest* are, in nice usage, restricted to the members of a family, while *older* and *oldest* are not so limited. Thus; "John is *older* than his friend," but, "John is the *eldest* of the three children."

(e) *Former, latter, elder, upper, inner*, are now used principally to mark relations of space or time, seldom as comparatives.

(f) Adjectives that in themselves express the highest degree of a quality, or that have no shades of meaning, are not compared; as *supreme, extreme, eternal, infallible, perpendicular, dead, full, superior*.

Note.—A few adjectives like *perfect, complete, free*, are now being used to express degrees of comparison; as “This is more perfect than that; This is the most complete history that has ever been written.” Some speakers prefer to adhere to the old form of expression, as “This is more nearly perfect than that.” It has become strictly correct usage, however, to employ more and most in comparisons with these words.

(g) The comparative degree of an adjective is used when two persons or things are compared; the superlative, when *more than two* are compared; as, “He is the *elder* of the two brothers.” “She is the *eldest* of the three sisters.”

(h) When a comparative is used with *than*, the thing compared must always be excluded from the class of things with which it is compared; as, “London is larger *than* any *other* city in Europe;” not “London is larger *than* any city in Europe.”

(i) When a superlative is used, the class that furnishes the objects of comparison, and that is introduced by *of*, should always include the thing compared; as, “Brutus was the *noblest* Roman *of them all*.”

(j) The noun or pronoun modified by an ad-

jective is sometimes understood; as, "When I buy books, I always buy the best (books)."

Farther (adj. or adv.) is now generally used to express distance; *further* (adj. or adv.), to express that which is additional.

Drill in the Correct Uses of the Comparative and the Superlative Forms of Adjectives.

DRILL.

Qualifying Adjectives.

She is a *pretty* child.

This child is the *prettier* of the two.

This child is the *prettiest* of the three.

He is a *good* boy.

This boy is the *better* of the two.

This boy is the *best* of the three.

He is a *large* boy.

This boy is *larger* than the other boy.

This boy is the *largest* of the three.

This apple is *sweet*.

This apple is *sweeter* than that.

This apple is the *sweetest* of all.

This cloth is the *better* of the two. (not best.)

This hat is the *worse* of the two. (Not worst.)

This is the *best* of the three.

This is the *worst* of the three.

I like this *better* than that.

I like this the *best* of all.

Of two evils, choose the *less*.

This is the *least* of my troubles.

This house is the *nearer* of the two.

This is the *nearest* of the three houses.

This house is the *nearest* of the three houses.

This boy is *older* than his brother.

This boy is the *elder* of the two. (Brothers.)

This boy is the *older* of the two. (Friends.)

He is the *elder* of the two brothers.

He is the *older* of the two friends.

He is the *eldest* of the three brothers.

He is the *oldest* of the three friends.

He is *older* than his brother. (Not *elder*.)

(Note that when *than* is used, *older* is required, when referring to members of the same family.)

He is *older* than his sister.

He appears much *older* than his brother.

DRILL.

Limiting Adjectives.

How *much* money do you need?

I will give you *more* money next time.

You have *more* money than I.

You have the *most* of all.

This is of *little* consequence.

This is of *less* importance than that.

That is of the *least* importance of all.

Comparatives Used With Than, So As.

In comparative forms, *any*, followed by *other* is required in order to exclude the thing compared from its class; as, "This is *finer than any other*." In the superlative form, *than* being omitted, *all* is required; as, "This is the *finest of all*." In negative constructions, *other* is also

required; as, "There is *no other* place so desirable as this."

DRILL.

There is *no other* place like New York.

There is *no other* place so beautiful as this.

Nothing else ages like laziness. (*Else* takes the place of *other*.)

Nothing else is so necessary as this.

This is finer *than any other* house in the city.

These are *larger than any other* grounds in town.

This grass is *greener than any other* in the block.

This is the *finest* house of *all*.

This is the *finest* house in town.

These grounds are *larger than any other* in the town.

These grounds are the *largest* in the town.

This boy is *taller than any other* boy in his class.

This boy is the *tallest* in the school.

This girl is *prettier than any other* in her class.

This girl is the *prettiest* in the school.

Note.—Such constructions as, "This is finer than *any* I have ever seen," are defensible on the ground that the clause, "I have ever seen" excludes the thing compared from its class.

Nice Distinctions in Meaning.

Farther and Further.

DRILL.

He lives *farther* away than you do. (Distance.)

I can walk *farther* than you without becoming tired. (Distance.)

I shall go *farther* and say that you are incompetent to judge. (*Farther* is used in a figurative sense.)

How much *farther* he will go, I cannot say. (Figurative sense.)

I have nothing *further* to say. (Additional.)

Have you nothing *further* to say? (Additional.)

What *further* proof have you? (Additional.)

I have no *further* proof. (Additional.)

Apt, Likely, Liable.

Specific Rule. Use *apt*, *likely*, and *liable* in their right sense.

Apt implies natural tendency or fitness.

Likely refers to a contingent event usually regarded as favorable.

Liable refers to a contingent regarded as unfavorable.

Apt.

John is *apt* to catch cold on the slightest provocation. (Tendency to catch cold.)

John is *apt* to succeed in whatever he undertakes to do. (Tendency to succeed.)

John is *apt* to sleep late in the morning if

we do not awaken him. (Tendency to sleep late.)

John is *apt* to be stubborn in matters of this kind. (Tendency to be stubborn.)

John is *apt* at times to carry his teasing propensities to excess. (Tendency to carry them to excess.)

I am *apt* to forget to pay my fare unless reminded by the conductor. (Tendency to forget to pay.)

I am *apt* to be absent-minded when I have some problem to think about. (Tendency to be absent-minded.)

I am *apt* to be carried beyond the station. (Tendency to be carried beyond.)

I am not *apt* to lose my temper on so slight a provocation. (Tendency not to lose my temper.)

Note.—In all the foregoing sentences, *apt* is required, for the reason that mere natural tendency is indicated. In the following sentences, contingent events, favorable, or not especially unfavorable, are referred to; hence, *likely* is required:

Likely.

The weather is *likely* to be pleasant to-morrow. (Contingent event regarded as favorable.)

It is *likely* to rain at any moment. (Contingent event regarded as not especially unfavorable.)

He is *likely* to come at any moment. (Contingent event regarded as favorable, or not unfavorable.)

John is *likely* to succeed if he takes this new

position. (Contingent event regarded as favorable.)

John is *likely* to recover if he has good care. (Contingent event regarded as favorable.)

It is *likely* that I shall go to Europe this summer. (Contingent event regarded as favorable.)

It is *likely* that I shall receive an offer from my firm within a week or two. (Contingent event regarded as favorable.)

It is *likely* that my employer will promote me next fall. (Contingent event regarded as favorable.)

It is *likely* that I shall win this game. (Contingent event regarded as favorable.)

Is he *likely* to bring you flowers when he comes this evening? (Contingent event regarded as favorable.)

Is he *likely* to call for you this evening? (Contingent event regarded as favorable.)

Liable.

He is *liable* to die at any moment. (Contingent event regarded as unfavorable.)

He is *liable* to meet with an accident if he takes that train. (Contingent event regarded as unfavorable.)

The baby is *liable* to fall downstairs if you do not put a gate at the head of the stairs. (Contingent event regarded as unfavorable.)

These stairs are so steep that one is *liable* to an accident. (Contingent event regarded as unfavorable.)

Is the child *liable* to be run over if he crosses the street now? (Contingent event regarded as unfavorable.)

The ship is *liable* to go down at any moment. (Contingent event regarded as unfavorable.)

The child will be *liable* to hurt himself if you permit him to play so roughly. (Contingent event regarded as unfavorable.)

Well and Good.

Specific Rule.—Do not use the adjective *good* for the adverb *well*.

Note.—In this connection, note that *good* is always an adjective, while *well* may be used either as an adjective or as an adverb. Thus: in the sentence "He writes *well*," *well* is construed as an adverb, for the reason that the action of the verb *writes* is referred to; in the sentence "You look *well*," *well* is construed as an adjective, for the reason that the verb *look* does not express action, it being used merely in the sense of *appear*. Note that no *action* is being performed when one simply *appears well* or *happy* or *sad*, etc.

DRILL.

He writes *well*. (Not *good*.)

The dress suits *well*. (Not *good*.)

The dress fits *well*. (Not *good*.)

You play the violin *well*. (Not *good*.)

You sing *well*. (Not *good*.)

You talk *well*. (Not *good*.)

Shake the bottle *well*. (Not *good*.)

Did you sweep *well*? (Not *good*.)

The bandage stays on *well*. (Not *good*.)

This cloth wears *well*. (Not *good*.)

Note.—In all the foregoing sentences, the adverb *well*, and not the adjective *good*, is required, for the reason that the action of the verb is referred to. When the verb does not express action, the adjective *good* is required as in the following:

John is *good*. (No action is expressed by the verb *is*.)

He seems *good*. (No action is expressed by the verb *seems*.)

This orange tastes *good*. (No action is expressed by the verb *tastes*; note that the subject *orange* is not doing the *tasting*, while in all the constructions in which *well* is used, the subject is performing an action.)

He looks *good*. (Meaning that he does not look wicked.) (No action is expressed by the verb *looks*.)

Note.—In connection with the last sentence, note that when physical condition or appearance is referred to, the adjective *well* must be used; as, "He looks *well*" (meaning that he does not look ill; or that he is pleasing in appearance).

In connection with the use of the adjective *ill* in the sentence, "You look *ill*," note that the adjective "bad," or, as is frequently the case, the adverb "badly" is used; as, "You look bad," or "you look badly." The use of "bad" in the sense of "ill" is, strictly speaking, not correct, but the addition of "ly" does not improve the construction; on the other hand, the employment of the adverb "badly" after an inactive verb

like "look" or "feel" is ungrammatical, it being at variance with the rule. The adjective is required after a "verb of inaction when the reference is to the condition or state of the subject. Compare with "You look *sad*," "I feel *glad*."

DRILL.

She feels *ill*. (Not *badly*.)

Do you feel *ill*? (Not *badly*.)

I feel *ill*. (Not *badly*.)

I do not feel *ill*. (Not *badly*.)

You do not look *ill*. (Not *badly*.)

He looks *ill*. (Not *badly*.)

She does not look *ill*. (Not *badly*.)

Note.—To reiterate, although *ill* is given in the foregoing sentences, note that the employment of *bad* is in accordance with the every-day usage of our language; furthermore, its adjectival construction is grammatical, whereas, the adverbial form "badly" is ungrammatical.

Ill and Illy.

Specific Rule.—The form *ill* is used for both the adjective and the adverb. The form *illy* is always incorrect, there being no such word recorded as in good use.

Are you *ill*? (Adjective.)

Do you feel *ill*? (Adjective.)

Is he *ill*? (Adjective.)

You look *ill*. (Adjective.)

I am *ill*. (Adjective.)

My dress fits me *ill*. (Adverb.)

The children behaved *ill* all afternoon. (Adverb.)

The ship behaved *ill* in the storm. (Adverb.)

The children act *ill* when they are at the table with their mother. They never behave *ill* when they are with any one else. (Not *illy*.)

Why is it that little children are apt to behave *ill* when in company with their elders? (Not *illy*.)

She dresses *ill* in the morning. (Not *illy*.)

She spends her money *ill*. (Not *illy*.)

She speaks *ill* of her neighbors. (Not *illy*.)

Fear and Afraid.

Although *afraid*, employed to soften a statement or to mean *inclined to think*, has the sanction of fairly good usage, *fear* is preferred by many speakers as more nicely expressing the meaning.

DRILL.

I *fear* that you will be late. (Not *I am afraid*.)

I *fear* that I shall inconvenience you. (Not *I am afraid*.)

I *fear* that you are in the wrong. (Not *I am afraid*.)

Note.—The following use of *afraid* is correct:

I am *afraid* of fire. He is *afraid* of burglars. She is *afraid* of lightning.

The Article.

Note.—The articles *a*, *an* and *the*, are now regarded as adjectives. They modify the noun or pronoun.

Ex.—*A* fragrant flower is blooming. *An* old arm chair was in the corner. *The* merry birds are singing. (*A* is an adjective modifier of *flower*. *An* is an adjective modifier of *arm chair*. *The* is an adjective modifier of *birds*.)

Note.—When the article precedes a noun indicating possession, as in the sentence, "The boy's hat is in the tree," the article modifies the possessive noun (*boy's*), instead of the subject noun (*hat*).

The is used as an adverb in such construction as, "*The more the merrier*."

ARTICLE (THE, A, AN), REPETITION OF.

The following are the rules that govern the repetition of the article:

Rule 1. When two or more nouns following each other denote the same person or thing, the article is not repeated; but when the nouns denote different persons or things, the article must be repeated before each noun, and a plural verb must be used.

Nouns that Denote the Same Person.

The editor and publisher of the magazine *is* a very able man.

Nouns that Denote Different Persons.

The editor and *the* publisher of the magazine *are* very able men.

Rule 2. When two or more nouns following each other do not denote the same thing, but

are so closely associated in thought that they must be considered as forming a whole, the article is placed before the first noun only, and a singular verb should be used.

The pen and ink *is* here.

He has *a* new horse and buggy.

If, however, for the sake of emphasis, the article is repeated before each noun, then a plural verb must be used. Thus, "*The* pen and *the* ink *are* both here;" "*the* bread and *the* butter *are* both on the table," etc.

Rule 3. When two or more nouns are compared, the article is not repeated if the nouns denote the same person or thing; but if the nouns denote different persons or things, the article must be repeated before each noun.

He is a better writer than the former editor. (Nouns do not denote the same person.) He is a better writer than speaker. (Nouns denote the same person.)

The repetition of the article is sometimes sanctioned for the sake of emphasis; as, "He went his way *a* sadder and *a* wiser man."

Rule 4. When a singular noun is modified by several adjectives, only one article must be used if the noun denotes but one object; but if the noun denotes more than one object, the article must be repeated before each noun.

One Object.

A black and white dress.

A red, white, and blue flag.

The yellow and white cottage *is* the one I mean.

Two or More Objects.

A black and *a* white dress.

A red, *a* white, and *a* blue flag.

The black and *the* white cottage *are* both for rent.

Rule 5. When a plural noun is modified by two or more adjectives, only one article must be used, and that is placed before the first adjective only.

6. *The first* and *second* chapters of the book are very interesting.

Note.—If the noun is singular, then Rule 4 is applicable; thus: “*The first* and *the second* chapter are very interesting.”

The Verb.

Verbs are either regular or irregular.

A verb is called a regular verb when the past tense is formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the present; as *love, loved; walk, walked*.

(Sometimes final *d* is changed into *t*, as, *sleep, slept*.)

A verb is called an irregular verb when the past tense is formed by a change in the body of the word; as, *write, wrote; teach, taught*.

Note.—Some grammarians call the regular verbs, weak verbs, and the irregular, strong verbs.

The Verb and Its Properties.

The *properties* of the verb are *voice*, *mode*, *tense*, *person* and *number*.

Voice.

Voice is that form of verb which indicates whether the subject denotes the actor or the receiver of the action. There are two voices: *Active* and *Passive*.

1. The *active* voice denotes that the action is performed by the subject; as, "John *likes* James."

2. The *passive* voice denotes that the action is performed upon the subject; as, "John *is liked* by James."

Note.—The sentence, "John likes James," may be changed to "James was liked by John;" the object becoming the subject of the sentence and receiver of the action.

Mode.

Mode or *mood* is the *manner* in which the verb is used. There are four modes: *indicative*, *subjunctive*, *imperative*, and *infinitive*.

Note.—Many authorities are now rejecting the so-called Potential mode.

1. The *indicative* mode is that use of the verb by which an assertion is made, or a supposition is regarded as a fact, or a question is asked, as, "The children are going to school (assertion). "If the children are going to school (and they are), I will go with them" (supposition regarded

as a fact). "Are the children going to school?" (Question.)

2. The *subjunctive* mode is that use of the verb by which the supposition is stated as merely *thought of*; as, "If he were here (but he is not), he would go."

3. The *imperative* mode is that use of the verb by which command is expressed; as, "Go home." "Give me that book."

Note.—The subject of the imperative mode is the personal pronoun of the second person, understood; as, "(You) go home." "(You) give me that book." Sometimes the command is followed by a request; as, "Give me that book, will you please?"

4. The *infinitive* mode is that use of the verb by which the action or the condition is merely stated, without restriction as to number or person.

In the sentence, "I told him to go," *to go* is in the infinitive mode, having for its subject the pronoun *him*.

Rule 1.—The subject of a verb in the infinitive mode is always in the objective case.

Note.—The infinitive form of the verb is frequently used as a noun; thus, "*to see* is *to believe*" this being equivalent to "*seeing* is *believing*."

Tense.

Tense is from the Latin *tempus*, time, and denotes the *time* to which the action or the state of the verb is referred.

Ex.—I *write*, I *wrote*, I *have written*.

Classification of Tenses.

There are three main tenses called *primary* tenses; namely, present, past and future; thus:
Present Tense. Past Tense. Future Tense.

I see. I saw. I shall see.

The three *primary* tenses have each a *perfect* form; that is, each tense is capable of expressing time as completed or perfected in the present, the past, and the future; thus:

Present Perfect Tense. Past Perfect Tense.

I have seen. I had seen.

Future Perfect Tense.

I shall have seen.

The *primary* and *perfect* tenses have each a *progressive* tense form; that is, the three primary tenses and the three perfect tenses are capable of expressing time as progressive or continuous. These are called *progressive* tense forms, and the present and the past participle of the verb, with the tenses of the verb "be," are used in their formation.

Present Progressive Tense.

I am seeing.

Past Progressive Tense.

I was seeing.

Future Progressive Tense.

I shall be seeing.

Present Perfect Progressive Tense.

I have been seeing.

Past Perfect Progressive Tense.

I had been seeing.

Future Perfect Progressive Tense.

I shall have been seeing.

Passive Forms.

I am (or was) being seen.

Person and Number.

The verbs of modern English, with the exception of the verb *to be*, undergo but one change to indicate the *person* and the *number* of their subjects.

Strictly speaking, *person* and *number* are not properties of the verb, but when the subject of the verb is in the third person, singular number, the verb undergoes a change in order to indicate its agreement with the subject; thus, "I love," "you love" (*thou lovest*), "he loves," "we love," "you love," "they love."

Note.—Verbs are changed in the second person, singular number, as in the form "thou lovest," only in poetry, in Anglo-Saxon, and in exceptional utterances.

The verb *to be* differs from all other verbs in that it undergoes several changes to indicate its agreement with the subject; thus: "I *am*" (*thou art*, in poetry, etc.), "he *is*," "we *are*," etc.

The Verb and Its Classifications.

Verbs are divided into two great classes: *transitive* and *intransitive*.

1. A *transitive* verb is a verb that expresses

action and at the same time requires a *receiver* for its action.

Ex.—John *likes* James. The sun *warms* the earth.

Note.—The verbs in these examples require receivers for their action in order to express sense.

2. An *intransitive* verb is a verb that expresses existence, state (condition), or action that does not require a receiver for it.

Many verbs have a *transitive* as well as an *intransitive* use. The verbs of the senses, for example, are verbs of this character.

Transitive.

Intransitive.

I *tasted* the milk.

The milk *tastes* sour.

I *felt* my way carefully.

I *feel* happy.

"Soft eyes *looked* love
to eyes that spake
again."

She *looks* happy.
The flower *smells*
sweet.

He *sounded* the bell.

The music *sounds*
sweet.

Note.—In such constructions as, "He looked at her suspiciously," the intransitive verb expresses action; hence, the adverb is required. In the foregoing sentences, the intransitive verbs do not express action; hence, the adjective is required.

Note.—Most verbs are capable of either a transitive or an intransitive use. Some verbs, however, are capable of being properly used only in an intransitive sense, as the verbs, *lie*, *fall*, etc. Thus: "He is *lying* down;" "He has *fallen* down."

Only transitive verbs have voice. Intransitive verbs, however, are said to be in the *passive voice* when a preposition can be incorporated with the verb, as in the sentence, "He was laughed at by James," "at" being regarded, for the time being, as a part of the verb.

The distinctive characteristic of the transitive verb is, that it always has a *receiver* for its action, the receiver being either the subject or the object noun, while the intransitive verb either stands alone, or is followed by some word that modifies it or is related to the subject.

Note.—In some cases, the intransitive verb apparently takes a direct object, as in the sentence, "He ran a mile." Here *mile* is not the object of *ran*, but the object of a preposition understood; thus, "He ran *for* a mile."

The Transitive Verb and Its Uses.

The following are the uses of the transitive verb:

(a) The transitive verb may express action as being received by the object; as, "John *bought* several books" (object *books* receives the action, and the verb *bought* is in the active voice).

(b) The transitive verb may express action as being received by the subject; as, "The *books were bought* by John" (subject *books* receives the action, and the verb *bought* is in the passive voice).

Note.—Such constructions as "He was given a benefit" are censured, for the reason that the indirect object of the action (he) is made the

subject. "A benefit was given him" is regarded as better form.

In such constructions as "He was made president," *president* is construed as the predicate complement, a few transitive verbs being capable of taking a predicate complement.

In the sentence, "They elected him president," *president* would be construed by some as an appositive modifier of the object (him), and as in the objective case; it should be regarded as a complement in the objective case, *i. e.*, "They elected him *to be* president."

Note.—Some verbs that are more especially intransitive, become transitive in peculiar constructions, such as "She laughed a laugh of scorn;" "He smiled a weary smile." These uses may be regarded as transitive, although in their real meaning they are intransitive; thus, "She laughed scornfully;" "He smiled wearily."

The Intransitive Verb and Its Uses.

The following are the uses of the intransitive verb:

(a) The intransitive verb may assert something of the subject without the assistance of any other part of speech; as, "He *is writing*." "The sun *shines*."

(b) The intransitive verb may assert something of the subject, with the assistance of an adjective; as, "I *am happy*."

(c) Some intransitive verbs may assert identity between the subject and some person or

thing; as, "He *is* a *writer*." "Barrie *is* an *author*."

(d) Intransitive verbs may express action, and be modied by an adverb.

Ex.—He walks *rapidly* (*rapidly* is an adverb of manner).

Note.—The adjective is always required after an intransitive verb, when the reference is to the subject; the adverb, when the reference is to the verb.

In the following examples the reference is to the subject, hence, the adjective is used: "The girl *is beautiful*" (*beautiful* girl). "The child seems *happy*" (*happy* child). "The sea looks *rough*" (*rough* sea).

In the following sentence, the reference is to the verb, hence, the adverb is used: "The boy walks *slowly*" (walks in a slow manner).

Note.—Although the verb *to be* may be followed by an adverb of place, as in the sentence, "He *is here*," it is never followed by an adverb of manner; hence, adjectives, and not adverbs of manner, are used after the verb *to be*, and all verbs of like meaning; as, "He *is happy*," "He feels (or looks) *happy*." It is sometimes difficult to determine when to use the adjective and when to use the adverb after intransitive verbs. The rule is that the adjective, and not the adverb, is required, when for the verb in question, the verb *to be* or *to seem* can be substituted.

Note also in this connection that many grammarians regard the verb *to be* as incapable of being modified, and, in consequence, the adverb

that follows it is considered, for the time being, as a complement, the equivalent of a predicate adjective. Thus in the sentence, "He is here," *here* is regarded, for the time being, as a predicate adjective instead of an adverb; again, if in addition to the adverbial modifier, the verb *to be* is followed by a complement (predicate noun or adjective), the adverbial modifier is then regarded as modifying the idea conveyed by the verb and the complement; thus: in the sentence, "He was wealthy at one time," "at one time" may be regarded as the modifier of "was wealthy."

Further Examples.

He is with me at present.

He is with his father in the library.

She is at the theatre with her husband.

She is abroad with her family.

CONJUGATION.

MODEL FOR THE CONJUGATION OF TRANSITIVE VERBS IN THE INDICATIVE MODE.

Note.—The forms of the second person, singular number ("thou seest," "thou art seen," etc.), in all the modes and tenses, are used only in poetry and in exceptional utterances, the plural forms in the second person being the same in the singular number.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PRES. PART.	PAST PART.
See,	Saw,	Seeing,	Seen.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Active Voice.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------|
| 1. I see, | 1. We see, |
| 2. You see, Thou seest, | 2. You see, |
| 3. He sees, | 3. They see. |

Passive Voice.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I am seen, | 1. We are seen, |
| 2. You are seen, thou
art seen, | 2. You are seen, |
| 3. He is seen, | 3. They are seen. |

PAST TENSE.

Active Voice.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------|
| 1. I saw, | 1. We saw, |
| 2. You saw, Thou saw-
est, | 2. You saw, |
| 3. He saw, | 3. They saw. |

Passive Voice.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I was seen, | 1. We were seen, |
| 2. You were seen, Thou
wast seen, | 2. You were seen, |
| 3. He was seen, | 3. They were seen. |

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Active Voice.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I have seen, | 1. We have seen, |
| 2. You have seen, Thou | 2. You have seen, |
| hast seen, | 3. They have seen. |
| 3. He has seen | |

Passive Voice.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I have been seen, | 1. We have been seen, |
| 2. You have been seen, Thou | 2. You have been seen, |
| Thou has, etc. | 3. They have been seen. |
| 3. He has been seen, | |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Active Voice.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I had seen, | 1. We had seen, |
| 2. You had seen, Thou | 2. You had seen, |
| hadst seen, | 3. They have been seen. |
| 3. He had seen, | |

Passive Voice.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I had been seen, | 1. We had been seen, |
| 2. You had been seen, Thou | 2. You had been seen, |
| Thou hadst, etc. | 3. They had been seen. |
| 3. He had been seen, | |

FUTURE TENSE.

Active Voice.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I shall or will see, | 1. We shall or will see, |
| 2. You shall or will see, | 2. You shall or will see, |
| Thou shalt, etc. | 3. They shall or will |
| 3. He shall or will see, | see. |

Passive Voice.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I shall or will be seen, | 1. We shall or will be |
| 2. You shall or will be | seen, |
| seen, Thou shalt, | 2. You shall or will be |
| etc. | seen, |
| 3. He shall or will be | 3. They shall or will be |
| seen. | seen. |

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Active Voice.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I shall or will have | 1. We shall or will have |
| seen, | seen, |
| 2. You shall or will | 2. You shall or will have |
| have seen, Thou | seen, |
| shalt, etc., | 3. They shall or will |
| 3. He shall or will | have seen. |
| have seen. | |

Passive Voice.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I shall or will have | 1. He shall or will have |
| been seen, | been seen, |
| 2. You shall or will | 2. You shall or will have |
| have been seen, | been seen, |
| Thou shalt, etc. | 3. They shall or will |
| 3. He shall or will | have been seen. |
| have been seen, | |

The exercises that follow are given in order to provide drills in the use of *have*, *has* and *had*. The student is to bear in mind that these auxiliaries are used only with past participle forms, and never with the past tense form; thus, one says, "I *rose*," but not "I *have rose*;" "I *sang*," but not "I *have sang*;" "I *drank*," but not "I *have drank*," and conversely, in nice usage, one says: "I *have sung*," but not "I *sung*;" "I *have drunk*," but not "I *drunk*."

Model.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
I write.	I wrote.	I have written.

The present tense is used to form either the present tense or the future tense; as, "Write the letter" (present); "I shall write the letter" (future). The perfect tense form (past participle) is used in all the perfect tenses of the active and the passive voice, as, "I have written;" "He has written" (present perfect tense); "I had written" (past perfect tense); "I shall have written" (future perfect tense); and in passive forms "It is written;" "It was written," etc.

The past tense form and the past participle form are alike in many verbs; in others, they are unlike; hence it is important to bear in mind that the past tense form is used without *have*, *has*, *had*, *is* or *was*; and that the participle form is used when these auxiliaries are required.

The past tense forms, such as *began*, *bade*, *bit*, *blew*, etc., are used without *have*, *has*, or *had*,

and indicate by the context some specific time in the past; as, "I *began* the work yesterday." (*Began* indicates past time, and the context *yesterday* indicates some specific time in the past.) The past participle forms, *begun*, *bidden* or *bid*, *blown*, are used with *have*, *has*, or *had*, and indicate time perfected up to the present (*have* or *has*), or in the past (*had*); as, "I *have begun* the work," or "He *has begun* the work," time perfected up to the present. "I *had begun* the work before you came," time perfected in the past, the context "before you came" indicating when the work was begun.

*bear (to

carry) I bear the pain.

†bore I bore the pain.

‡borne I have borne the pain.

beat Beat the rug.

beat I beat the rug yesterday.

beaten or

beat I had beaten the rug before you came

begin I begin work to-day.

began I began work yesterday.

begun I have begun the work.

bend Bend the wire.

bent I bent the wire yesterday.

bent I have bent the wire every day.

*Present. †Past. ‡P. P.

bereave You bereave me of my belonging.

bereaved or

bereft He bereft him of his belongings.

bereaved or

bereft You have bereft me of my belongings.

beseech I beseech you to do this now.

besought I besought you to do this yesterday.

besought I have besought you to do this every day.

bet I bet ten dollars on this game.

bet I bet ten dollars yesterday.

bet I have bet ten dollars on every game this season.

Note.—A second form *betted* is recorded for the past tense and the participle, but it is rarely used.

bid Bid him good-by.

bade or I bade him good-by yesterday.

bad

bidden I have bidden him good-by every time he has gone.

Note.—*Bid* is occasionally used with the third form.

bind Bind the books now.

bound I bound the books yesterday.

bound I have bound the book for a year.

bite The dog will bite the child.

bit The dog bit the child last night.

bitten The dog has bitten the child once before.

bless He will bless the little children.
blessed or He blessed the little children on
 blest Sunday.
blessed or
 blest He has blessed the little children

Note.—As past tense and participle, *blessed* is pronounced *blest*, and is often so written; as a participial adjective, it is pronounced bless'ed: as, "The *blessed* Sacrament."

blow I will blow the dinner horn.
blew I blew the dinner horn at noon.
blown I have blown the dinner horn twice.

break The dish will break if you drop it.
broke The dish broke when you dropped it.
broken The dish was broken by the fall.

bring I bring the book every morning.
brought I brought the book yesterday.
brought I have brought the book each day.

build I build air castles every day.
built or
 buildd I built a promising one yesterday.
built or I have built many in my life.
 buildd

burn	Burn the waste paper.
burnt or burned	I burnt it yesterday.
burnt or burned	I have burnt the letters every day.
burst	Burst the bag.
burst	I burst the bag yesterday.
burst	I have burst the bag.
buy	I shall buy a chair today.
bought	I bought a chair yesterday.
bought	I have bought a chair every day this week.
can	I can do the work today.
could	I could do the work tomorrow.
cast	Cast that aside.
cast	I cast the coat aside yesterday.
cast	I have cast the coat aside.
catch	Catch the ball in your right hand.
caught	I caught the child as he was falling.
caught	I have caught the ball.
chide	Do not chide the lad.
chid	I chid him yesterday.
chidden	I have chidden him each day.

Note.—*Chid* is occasionally used with the third form.

choose	I choose to do the work now.
chose	I chose to do the work later.
chosen	I have chosen to do the work.
cling	I cling to old ways.
clung	I clung to the old way before I knew better.
clung	I have clung to the old way because I know no better.
clothe	Clothe the lad in warm clothes.
clothed or clad	I clothed him in thicker clothes last winter.
clothed or clad	I have clothed him for a year.
come	Come home early.
came	I came home early last evening.
come	I have come home early every evening.
cost	It will cost \$5.00.
cost	It cost \$10.00 yesterday.
cost	It has cost me much labor.
creep	We must creep before we can walk.
crept	I crept along that way last week.
crept	I have crept along the rocks always.
crow	The roosters crow in the morning.
crowed	The roosters crowed in the morning.
crowed	The roosters have not crowed since daybreak.
cut	Cut the dress according to the cloth.
cut	I cut it yesterday.
cut	I have cut the dress.

dare	Dare to do right?
dared or durst	He dared to do right.
dared	He has dared to do right.
deal	I shall deal with him gently.
dealt	I dealt with him gently in our inter- view.
dealt	I have dealt with him gently.
dig	I shall dig deeply into the subject.
dug or digged	I dug deeply into the matter when at college.
dug or digged	I have dug deeply into the subject.
do	Do as I do.
did	I did what you told me to do while you were gone.
done	I have done what you told me to do.
draw	I shall draw a draft on him.
drew	I drew the draft yesterday.
drawn	I have just drawn the draft.
dreamed or	I dream of her every night.
dreamt	I dreamed of her last night.
dreamed or	
dream	I have dreamed of her every night for
dreamt	a week.
dress	She does not dress well.
dressed	She dressed well last year.
or drest	
dressed	She has always dressed well.
or drest	

drink	I do not drink wine.
drank	I drank a glass of water a few minutes since.
drunk	I have just drunk a glass of water.
eat	Eat slowly.
ate	I ate my breakfast a few moments since.
eaten	I have eaten my breakfast.
fall	Do not fall.
fell	He fell yesterday.
fallen	He has just fallen.
feed	Feed the hungry.
fed	He fed the hungry during the winter.
fed	He has fed them.
feel	Do not feel grieved over this.
felt	She felt ill yesterday.
felt	She has felt ill for several days.
fight	I shall not fight this out in the courts.
fought	He fought it out in the courts last year.
fought	He has fought it out in the courts.
fit	Her gown fits well.
fitted	Her last gown fitted well.
fitted	Her gowns have never fitted her well.
flee	He attempted to flee from his pursuer.
fled	They fled from their pursuers when they found themselves in danger.
fled	They had fled before the enemy arrived.

fly	He attempted to fly from his pursuers.
flew	They flew from their pursuers when they saw them appear.
flown	They had flown before the pursuers arrived.

Flee (*fled*, *fled*), and *fly* (*flew*, *flown*), used in the sense of, to attempt to escape; to seek safety in quick departure; to disappear quickly; to fade or disappear, are interchangeably used. In many other senses they are not interchangeable; thus: *fly*, *flew* and *flown*, meaning to pass quickly through the air; to shoot out; to dart forth quickly; when moved by sudden impulse, is not interchangeably used with *flee*, *fled*, *fled*; as Arrows *flew* about him." "The bird has *flown*." "The door *flew* open."

fling	Do not fling out innuendoes.
flung	He flung out several innuendoes while we were conversing.
flung	He had flung out several innuendoes before his opponent had an opportunity to answer him.
forsake	A true mother will never forsake her children.
forsook	He forsook his family after achieving fame and distinction.
forsakenor forsook (poetic)	He has forsaken them.

freeze	Do not freeze the ice-cream yet.
froze	She froze the ice-cream early this morning.
frozen	He had frozen the ice-cream before he received your orders.

get	Get a book from the library for me.
got	I got a book for you yesterday.
got or gotten	I have got (or gotten) a book for you.

Got and *gotten* are interchangeably used, the forms being equally correct. (Some of the records give *gotten* as obsolete, but this ruling is not in accordance with that of such authoritative works as the Century and the Standard Dictionary.) Either *got* or *gotten* is properly used with *have*, *has*, or *had*, when there has been a getting, as in the sentences given above. When used in the sense of possession, obligation or necessity, *have*, *has*, or *had* is superfluous; as, I *have* an interesting book to read (not *have got*); I *have* to go (not "I *have got* to go").

gild	I am going to gild the furniture.
gilded or gilt	I gilded the furniture yesterday.
gilded or gilt	I have gilded (or gilt) the furniture.

give	Give me that book, please.
gave	I gave him the book when he called.
given	I have given him the book.

grind	Grind the coffee fine.
ground	He ground the coffee for breakfast the night before.
ground	He has ground the coffee for breakfast.
grow	I shall grow thinner on this diet.
grew	He grew thinner from day to day.
grown	He has grown thinner in the past year.
have	Have you an interesting book to read?
had	I had an interesting book to read, but some one has taken it.
had	I have had several books from the library this week.
hew	Do not hew down that tree.
hewed	He hewed down the tree before breakfast.
hewn or hewed	He had hewn down the tree before I knew what he was doing.
hide	Do not hide from me.
hid	He hid from me when he heard my steps.
hidden or hid	He has hidden from me all this time.
hit	Do not hit the table.
hit	He hit the table as he passed.
hit	He had hit the table before I spoke.
hold	Hold on tightly.
held	He held on, although he knew he was playing a losing game.
holden (in law) held	He has held on in spite of the difficulties that beset his path.

hurt	Does your finger hurt?
hurt	He hurt his finger yesterday.
hurt	He has just hurt his finger.

keep	Keep still.
kept	He has kept still as long as he could.
kept	He has kept still all these years.

kneel	Kneel down.
kneltd or kneeled	The child knelt at her feet as she stood before him.
kneltd or kneeled	The child has knelt in prayer.

knit	Do not knit your brows.
knitted or knit	He knitted his brows as if in deep thought.
knitted or knit	He has knitted several pairs of stock- ings this winter.

know	What do you know about this?
knew	I knew the facts before you told me.
known	I have always known the facts.

lade	Do not lade the boat so heavily.
laded	He laded the boat with baskets of provisions, and then joined the rest of the party.
laden or laded	The trees are heavily laden with fruit.

lay (to cause to rest)	Lay down that book.
laid	He laid the book on the table.
laid	He has laid the book on the table.
(laying	She is laying away the winter cloth- ing.)
lie (to rest)	Lie down awhile and rest.
lay	I lay down last night by the open window and caught cold.
lain	I had just lain down as you came in.
(lying	She was lying down.)
lead	Lead the way, and we will follow.
led	He led the way and we followed.
led	He has led the way for others.
lean	Do not lean against the brass bed.
leant or leaned	He leaned against the bed as if too weary to stand erect.
leant or leaned	He has leaned so long on others that he cannot support himself.
leap	He will leap to still greater heights in his career.
leapt or leaped	He leapt from his position as clerk to that of superintendent.
leapt or leaped	He has leaped (pronounced leapt) to the highest position in the store.
leave	Do not leave me.
left	He left the house several minutes since.
left	He has just left the house.

lend	Lend me a nickel.
lent	I lent him a nickel yesterday.
lent	I have just lent him a nickel
let	Let me go.
let	I let him go after he had finished his work.
let	I have just let him go.
leave and let	Use <i>leave</i> in such constructions as, " <i>Leave</i> me alone," when the meaning is "absent yourself;" " <i>Let</i> me alone," when the meaning is "do not molest me."
lie	See <i>Lay</i> .
light	Light the lamp.
lighted	I lighted the lamp a few minutes since. (Less preferably lit.)
lighted	I have lighted the lamp.
lose	Do not lose your courage.
lost	He lost his courage for awhile, but regained it.
lost	Have you lost your pocketbook?
make	Make a fire in the grate.
made	I made a fire a few minutes since.
made	I have made a fire in the grate.
mean	What do you mean by these remarks?
meant	I meant what I said.
meant	I have always meant to go abroad.

meet	Meet me at noon at my office.
met	I met him at noon.
met	I have just met him.
mow	Shall I mow the lawn?
mowed	I mowed the lawn yesterday.
mowed, mown	I have mowed the lawn.
pay	Pay as you go.
paid	I paid the bill yesterday.
paid	I have just paid the bill.
pen	I will pen a few lines on the margin
penned	I penned a few lines on the margin before handing him the note.
penned	I have penned a few lines on the margin.
pen (to close)	Do not pen up those animals.
penned or pent	He penned up the animals in close quarters.
penned or pent	He has penned up the animals for the night.
put	Put that letter into the mail-box.
put	I put it in the mail-box a few minutes since.
put	I have already put it in the mail-box.
quit	Do not quit your efforts.
quit or quitted	When I quit my efforts my business began to suffer.
quit or quitted	I have quit my efforts in his behalf.

rap Do not rap on the door.
 rapped or I rapped on the door, and he came.
 rapt
 rapped or I have rapped on the door.
 rapt

read (pro- Do not read so loud.
 nounced
 reed)
 read (red) I read the books last week.
 read (red) I have just read the books.

rend He will rend her feelings and then
 think no more about it.
 rent It rent her feelings to see so much
 misery.
 rent It has rent her feelings.
 rid Rid out all the closets in the house.
 rid I rid the closets out while you were
 gone.
 rid I have rid the pantry of mice.

ride Shall you ride or drive?
 rode I rode through the park yesterday.
 ridden I have ridden through the park every
 day this week.

ring Please ring the bell.
 rang I rang the bell a few moments since.
 rung I have just rung the bell.

Rung without *has*, *have* or *had*, or in the passive, used as past tense form is not in accordance with the best usage of the language.

rise	Rise early.
rose	I rose early yesterday.
risen	I have risen early every day this week.

Note.—*Arise, arose, arisen*, are used more especially in figurative language; as, "Trouble *arose* in the camp."

run	Run quick (or quickly).
ran	I ran to her rescue a moment since.
run	I have run every step of the way.

saw	Saw the wood.
sawed	I sawed the wood yesterday.
sawed or sawn	I have already sawed wood.

say	Say that again.
said	I said what I meant when I said I wasn't going.
said	I have said all that I am going to say.

see	I shall see him this evening.
saw	I saw him last evening.
seen	I have seen him every evening this week.

seek	Seek enlightenment as the highest thing to attain.
sought	While in school I sought for knowledge in books.
sought	I have sought for knowledge, but I have not found it.

sell	I shall sell this property.
sold	I sold it to him yesterday.
sold	I have just sold it to him.

send	Send him to me.
sent	I sent for her yesterday.
sent	I have just sent for her.

set (to cause to sit)	Set that pitcher on the table.
set	I set it there last night.
set	I have set it on the table.

sit (inac- tion)	I shall sit down for a few minutes and rest.
sat	I sat there waiting for him to come, for more than an hour.
sat	I have sat there all day waiting for him.

shake	Shake the bottle well.
shook	I shook the bottle well before taking the medicine.
shaken	I have shaken the bottle well.

shape	Shape your life as you wish it.
shaped	I shaped the bonnet for her before you came in.
shaped	I have shaped the bonnet.

shave	Shave closely.
shaved	The barber shaved his beard yesterday.
shaved	The barber has shaved his head closely (rarely shaven).
shear	The farmer shears the sheep.
sheared	The farmer sheared the sheep yesterday.
sheared	The farmer has sheared the sheep.
<i>Shorn</i> is used in such constructions as, "He has been <i>shorn</i> of all his belongings."	
shed	This sheds light on the matter.
shed	He shed light on the matter when he told me of these facts.
shed	He has shed light on the matter.
shine	The sun shines bright (or brightly).
shone	The sun shone only a few minutes yesterday.
shone	The sun has not shone brightly for a week.
shoe	Do not shoe the horse to-day.
shod	I shod the horse last week.
shod	I have just shod the horse.
shoot	Do not shoot the dog.
shot	The policeman shot the dog yesterday.
shot	The policeman has shot the dog.
show	Show me the goods in the window.
showed	He showed her the goods in the window.
shown or showed	He has shown her the goods.

shred	Shred the codfish fine.
shred	She shred the fish this morning.
shred	She has shred the fish.

(Less frequently *shredded* in the past and perfect tenses.)

shrink	Do not shrink the dress when you wash it.
shrank	I shrank the dress slightly when I washed it.
shrunk	I have shrunk the dress.

Note.—It is preferable to restrict *shrank* to past tense forms, and *shrunk* to the perfect tense forms, used with *have*, *has*, *had*, or in the passive voice with *is*, *was*, etc.

shut	Shut the door.
shut	I shut the door.
shut	I have shut the door.

sing	Sing that song, please.
sang	I sang it a few minutes ago.
sung	I have just sung it.

Note.—The same rule is applicable as in the case of *shrunk*.

sink	You will sink your fortune in that venture.
sank	He sank his fortune in that venture.
sunk	He has sunk his entire fortune in that venture.

Note.—Same rule is applicable as in *shrunk*.

sit	See <i>Set</i> .
slay	They would slay their enemies without mercy.
slew	They slew all who avowed themselves their enemies.
slain	They have slain their enemies.
slide	Slide down the hill.
slid	I slid down the hill yesterday.
slid or slidden	I have slid down the hill every day this week.
sling	Do not sling that bag over your shoulder.
slung	He slung the bag over his shoulder and went on his way.
slung	He had slung the bag over his shoulder by this time, and had gone away.
slit	He slit the letter open.
slit	He slit the letter open and began to read it excitedly.
slit	He had slit the letter open before you came.
Less frequently <i>slitted</i> in past and perfect tenses.	
smite	I will smite down prejudices wherever I encounter them.
smote	He smote down prejudice wherever he encountered it.
smitten or smit	He has smitten down prejudice wherever he has encountered it.

sow	Sow wheat instead of tares.
sowed	He sowed tares in his youth, and now he must take the consequences.
sown or sowed	He has sown wheat instead of tares.
speak	Speak plainly.
spoke	He spoke on this subject before the assembly.
spoken	He has spoken before on this subject.
speed	Speed along.
sped or speeded	The car sped out of sight as we turned the corner.
sped or speeded	The car had sped out of sight before we turned the corner.
spend	Do not spend all your money.
spent	He spent his money foolishly when in the city.
spent	He has always spent his money fool- ishly.
spill	Do not spill the milk.
spilt or spilled	He spilt the milk.
spilt or spilled	He has spilt the milk.
	The shorter spelling <i>spilt</i> is preferable.
spin	We no longer spin as did our grand- mothers.
spun	My grandmother spun that dress when she was sixteen years of age.
spun	She has spun all day long in the sun.

split	Split the kindling.
split	He split the kindling yesterday.
split	He has split the kindling.

The longer form *splitted* is rarely used.

spit	A cat spits at a dog.
spit or spat	The cat spit at the dog as he lay asleep.
spit or spat	The cat has spit at the dog.

spread	Spread the good news.
spread	He spread the good news as soon as he heard it.
spread	He has spread the good news.

spring	The grass will spring up quickly after the rain.
sprang	The child sprang into his mother's arms when he saw her.
sprung	The child had sprung into his moth- er's arms before she hardly knew he was there.

Note.—It is preferable to restrict *sprang*, to past tense uses; *sprung* to the perfect tenses with *have*, *has*, *had*, or the passive voice forms.

stand	Do not stand on the corner.
stood	I stood on the corner while the car passed by.
stood	I have stood on the corner for an hour waiting for the car.

stave Stave off the payment of the bill as long as you can.

staved or He staved off the payment of the bill
stove as long as he could.

staved or He has taved off the payment of the
stove bill as long as he could.

stay Do not stay long.

staid or He staid as long as he dared yester-
stayed day.

staid or He has staid as long as he dared.
stayed

Note.—The shorter spelling is preferred by many.

steal The cat will steal the cream if you leave it there.

stole The cat stole the cream while we were away.

stolen The cat has stolen the cream.

stick Stick to your text.

stuck He stuck to his subject throughout the entire lecture.

stuck He has stuck closely to the facts.

sting The bee will sting you.

stung The bee stung me yesterday.

stung The bee has already stung me.

strew Do not strew those leaves over the carpet.

strewed He strewed the leaves over the carpet.

strewed or strewn He has strewn the leaves over the carpet.

Note.—The shorter form would seem preferable.

stride Do not stride about in such a pompous manner.

strode He strode angrily about while waiting in the outer room.

stridden He had stridden angrily about, swearing vengeance, when his opponent appeared.

strike Do not strike the dog.

struck He struck the dog lightly with his cane as it ran past him.

struck or stricken He had struck the dog before you spoke.

He has been stricken down with a severe illness.

string Do not string that story out so long.

strung He strung the story out to an unnecessary length.

strung He has strung the story out to an unnecessary length.

strive The bitterest disappointment can come only to those who strive.

strove I strove for the prize before I learned what it was.

striven I have striven for the prize.

swear Swear not at all.
 swore He swore at the dog when it leaped upon him.
 swore He has sworn never to forgive her.

sweep Sweep the floor clean.
 swept She swept the floor a few moments since.
 swept She has swept the floor clean.

swell His heart will swell with pride.
 swelled His heart swelled with pride while she listened.
 swelled or His heart has swelled with pride.
 swollen

swim She can swim across the lake.
 swam She swam across the lake yesterday.
 swum She has swum across the lake.

Note.—Swam in the past tense is preferable to swum.

swing Do not swing so high.
 swung or She swung very high yesterday.
 swang
 swung She has swung higher than that.

Note.—*Swung*, preferably used to *swang* in the past tense, offers an exception to the general rule, to restrict words spelled with *u* to perfect tense forms (with *have*, *has*, *had*), and passive voice forms.

take	I shall take him with me.
took	I took him to the city yesterday.
taken	I have taken him there several times.
teach	Teach me how to do that.
taught	I taught her how to sew last summer.
taught	I have taught several how to make that stitch.
tear	Do not tear your clothes.
tore	I tore my dress yesterday.
torn	I have torn my dress.
tell	Tell me how to make that cake.
told	I told her how to make it yesterday.
told	I have told her how to make it, but she forgets my instructions.
think	Think of me when I am absent.
thought	I thought of you yesterday.
thought	I have often thought of you in your absence.
thrive	He thrives well on bread and milk.
throve	The child throve well in the summer on bread and milk.
thriven	The child has thriven on this diet. (<i>Thrived</i> in the past and perfect tense is rarely used.)
throw	Throw that away.
threw	The child threw away the toy after he had become tired of it.
thrown	The child has thrown away his toy.

thrust Do not thrust her out of your life.
 thrust He thrust her out of his life a year ago.
 thrust He has thrust her out of his life.

tread Tread the same path.
 trod He trod softly when he found the
 child was asleep.
 trod or This path has been trod (or trodden)
 trodden before.

wax Wax the floors.
 waxed I waxed the floors last week.
 waxed I have waxed the floors.

wear Wear that dress to-morrow.
 wore I wore it yesterday.
 worn I have worn it every day this week.

weave You can weave a very interesting
 story out of these facts.

wove or He wove an interesting story out of
 woved of these facts, and sent it to a pub-
 lisher.

woven or He has woven a very interesting story
 wove or out of these facts.

weaved

Wove or weaved in the perfect tense is not in
 accordance with preferred usage.

weep Do not weep.
 wept He wept when I told him the truth
 about it.

wept He has often wept over the matter.

wet	He wet the towel in the basin.
wetted or wet	He wet the towel a few minutes since.
wet	He has wet the towel in the basin.
whet	This will whet your appetite.
whet or whetted	This whetted his appetite when he ate it.
whetted or whet	This has whetted his appetite.
win	He will win the prize.
won	He won the prize yesterday.
won	He has won the prize each year.
wind	Wind your arm about me.
wound	The child wound his arms about his mother's neck when he saw her.
wound	The child has wound his arms about his mother's neck.
work	Work while you work.
worked	He worked late yesterday.
worked	He has worked early and late.
Note.— <i>Wrought</i> in the past and the perfect tense is used in such constructions as, "He wrought all this trouble on himself early in his career;" "He has wrought all this trouble."	
wring	Wring the cloth out dry.
wrung	He wrung the cloth out dry before he he used it.
wrung	He has wrung the cloth out dry.
write	Write often.
wrote	I wrote every day while away.
written	I have written every day while away.

Rule.—*Do not* use verbs spelled with *a* with *have, has, had*.

Note.—The two *a*'s must not be used together; thus: "I *began*," "I *have begun*;" "I *sang*," "I *have sung*;" "I *drank*," "I *have drunk*."

Drills.

Began, Begun.

I *began* this letter yesterday.

I *began* my lessons in September.

He *began* to show signs of fatigue.

We *began* to grow weary of his company.

They *began* to think that he did not intend to go.

I *have begun* to study French.

He *has begun* to see the importance of learning rules and principles.

They *had begun* to sing before I arrived.

They *have begun* to give up hope.

Drank and Drunk.

Rule.—Use *drank* without *have, has, or had*; use *drunk* with *have, has, or had*.

I *drank* a cup of iced tea at dinner.

He *drank* several glasses of mineral water at the springs this morning.

They *drank* nothing but soda-water at the drug-store.

I am surprised to hear that they *drank* nothing but soda-water.

They *drank* several glasses of water.

Are you sure that they *drank* nothing but water?

He *drank* two cupfuls of coffee at breakfast.

I *have drunk* several glasses of water to-day.

He *has drunk* several glasses of water to-day.

We *have drunk* all the lemonade.

You *have drunk* all the water.

They *have* not *drunk* any water to-day.

I *had drunk* several glasses of water before you came.

You *had drunk* several glasses of water before he came.

He *had drunk* several glasses of water before she came.

We *had drunk* several glasses of water before he came.

They *had drunk* several glasses of water before he came.

Have I *drunk* all the water in the pitcher?

Have you *drunk* all the water in the pitcher?

Has he *drunk* all the water in the pitcher?

Have we *drunk* all the water in the pitcher?

Have they *drunk* all the water in the pitcher?

Had he *drunk* all the medicine before the doctor came?

Had they *drunk* all the water before you came?

Note.—In the passive voice *drunk*, and not *drank*, is required.

The water *was drunk* by all the party.

Several glasses of water *were drunk* before the discovery was made that it was not pure.

Was the water *drunk* by all the party?

The water *was drunk* by all the party.

Several glasses of wine *have been drunk* this evening.

Several glass of wine *had been drunk* before the game began.

How many glasses of wine *have been drunk* this evening?

How many glasses of wine *had been drunk* before the game *was begun*?

A Conversation.

Will you have some iced-tea?

No, thank you; I *have drunk* two glasses.

Have you drunk two glasses?

The weather is so warm that I have been drinking water all day. I must *have drunk* more than the prescribed two quarts.

She.—Should one drink two quarts of water a day?

He.—I think that is the quantity suggested by physicians. I suppose if water *were* to be *drunk* more freely people would be healthier.

She.—Yes; and water is so plentiful in this country. When I was abroad, I found it difficult to get along without water. I declare, I don't want to see wine again. When one is thirsty, there is nothing so refreshing as pure water.

He.—I thought most young ladies preferred soda-water. I must *have drunk* about five glasses to-day. It seems to me that I have had the pleasure of escorting at least a half-dozen young ladies over to the drug-store, and, of course, I *drank* with them.

She.—Do you mean to say that you *have drunk* five glasses of soda-water in addition to the beverages that we *have drunk* here this evening.

He.—Yes; and I am thirsty yet. Let us take a walk and drink in the refreshing air, and the moonlight.

Rang, Rung.

I *rang* the bell a few moments since.

I *have rung* the bell.

He *had rung* the bell before I came.

He *has rung* the bell twice.

Sang, Sung.

I *sang* at a concert last night.

I *have sung* all the songs that I know.

Have you *sung* them all?

I *had sung* them before you came.

He *has sung* all the songs that he knows.

Sank, Sunk.

Rule.—Use *sank*, *shrank*, *sprang*, *swam* without *have*, *has* or *had*; use *sunk*, *shrunk*, *sprung*, *swum* with *have*, *had* or *has*.

Sank, Sunk.

The boat very nearly *sank* before we could reach it.

The boy *sank* twice before his rescuers could reach him.

The stone immediately *sank* to the bottom.

He *sank* all his fortune in the enterprise.

I *have sunk* all the money that I intend to sink in this enterprise.

Saw and Seen.

Use *saw* to express a specific time in the past; *seen* to express time perfected in the past, present, or future; as, I *saw* him yesterday; I *had seen* him the day before we parted; I *have* often *seen* him since. I *shall have seen* him by six o'clock this evening. (Do not use *seen* without *have*, *has*, *had*, *was* or *is*, expressed or understood.)

Drill.

I *saw* him yesterday.

I *have* just *seen* him.

I *saw* her at the theater on Monday.

I *have* never *seen* her.

I *saw* him in New York.

I *have* never *seen* him.

I *saw* you on the street the other day.

I *have* often *seen* you on the street.

I *shall have seen* him by this time to-morrow.

Have Ever.

The auxiliary *have* is required in such constructions as, "This is the most interesting book that I *have ever* read," as it includes all time up to the present, while the past tense is used to indicate, more especially, a specified time in the past; as, "I read the book yesterday." Thus:

Past Tense.

(A specific time in the past.)

I *saw* him yesterday.

I *saw* him on Monday.

I *bought* the hat when in New York.

I *bought* the trunk in Paris.

I *received* your letter yesterday.

Present-Perfect Tense.

(Time reaches to the present.)

I *have* just *seen* him.

I *have* never *seen* him.

This is the best hat that I *have ever bought*.

I *have* just *received* your letter.

Drill.

He is one of the finest men that I *have ever known*. (Not "that I *ever knew*.")

She is one of the prettiest girls that I *have ever seen*. (Not "that I *ever saw*.")

It was one of the saddest sights that I *have ever seen*. (Not "that I *ever saw*.")

This is one of the most interesting books that I *have ever read*. (Not "that I *ever read*.")

Have you *ever* met him? (Not "*Did* you *ever* meet him?")

Have you *ever* seen him? (Not "*Did* you *ever* see him?")

Have you *ever* read it? (Not "*Did* you *ever* read it?")

I *have* never met him. (Not "I *never* met him.")

I *have* never seen him. (Not "I *never* saw him.")

I *have never read it*. (Not "I *never read it*.")

Do not use *ever* or *never* with the simple past tense unless a period of time is covered. Thus, while one cannot properly say, "Did you ever see him?" one may say, "Did you ever see him while in Paris?"

Ever and *never*, meaning *at any time, at no time*, may be used with either the past, the present or the future tense when a *period* of time is indicated, as, "Did you *ever* see Bernhardt while in Paris?" "Do you *ever* meet him on the street?" "Shall you *ever* go abroad?" "I *never* saw Bernhardt while in Paris, but I have seen her since." "I *never* meet him on the street, but I often see him at his home." "I *shall never* go abroad." Such expressions as, "I never said such a thing," are colloquial, *never* being incorrectly used as an emphatic *not*.

Shrank, Shrunk.

He.—My! How my bathing suit *has shrunk*.

She.—*Has* your bathing-suit *shrunk* very much?

He.—Yes; it *has shrunk* very much. *Has* yours *shrunk*?

She.—No; mine *has not shrunk*. It *might have shrunk*, had not my dressmaker *shrunk* the goods before making the suit.

He.—When goods *are shrunk* before they are washed, won't the garment shrink afterwards?

She.—Not much. My last bathing-suit *shrank* so much that I decided *to have* the cloth of this one *shrunk* before making it up.

Note that in the passive form (*was shrunk, are shrunk, etc.*) *shrunk* is required.

Sprang, Sprung.

I *sprang* to her assistance before the boat capsized.

He *sprang* to her assistance before the boat capsized.

They *sprang* to her assistance before the boat capsized.

The boat *sprang* a leak before we could reach the shore.

Has the boat *sprung* a leak?

The boat *has sprung* a leak.

He *had sprung* to her assistance before we arrived.

If they *had* only *sprung* to her assistance, she would not have had the accident.

Swam, Swum.

I *swam* across the lake yesterday.

He *swam* two miles yesterday.

I *have swum* all that I am going to swim today.

I *had swum* two miles before you came.

We *had swum* two miles before you came.

They *had swum* two miles before we came.

He *swam* to her assistance.

He *has swum* to her assistance.

He *had swum* to her assistance before the boat reached her.

If he *had* not *swum* to her assistance, she might have been drowned.

If we *had* not *swum* to her assistance, she might have been drowned.

USES OF SPECIAL VERBS.

Uses of Special Verbs.

Come and Go.

Come means to arrive at; *go* means to depart. The verb *come* is correctly used to indicate arrival at a place; *go*, to indicate departure for a place; as, "I will *come* to see you when I *go* to the city." "I am *going* to church on Sunday, and will *come* to see you immediately after the service."

Come.

(In the following sentences, arrival is to be expressed.)

I will *come* to your house on my way to town.

I will *come* to your office when I reach the city.

I will *come* to New York if you wish.

I will *come* to New York next month to talk over the matter with you.

Go.

(In the following sentences, departure is the idea to be expressed.)

I shall *go* to New York next month, and while there, I will *come* to see you.

I shall *go* to town in the morning, and will *come* to your office if you wish.

Let us *go* to the matinee this afternoon.

I shall *go* to the matinee this afternoon, and will *come* to see you on my way home.

A Conversation.

A.—When will you *come* to see me?

B.—I will *come* to-morrow.

A.—Will you *go* with me to the matinee?

B.—Thank you; I shall be pleased to *go*.

A.—When shall you *go* East?

B.—Soon. Will you *go* with me?

A.—Let us *go* to see Mary this afternoon.

B.—Very well; she has been expecting us to *come* for some time.

A.—When did she *come* to see you last?

B.—She came to see me on Monday.

Dived or Dove.

"I *dived*" (not *dove*) is the correct form. "Dove" is colloquial.

The principal parts of the verb "dive" are: present, *dive*; past, *dived*; present participle, *diving*; past participle, *dived*.

The following sentences are correct: "Mary is going to *dive*," etc.; "Mary *dived* yesterday"; "Mary has *dived* several times"; "Mary had *dived* before you came"; "Mary is *diving* now."

Finished and Through.

Specific Rule.—Do not use the preposition *through* for the verb *finished*.

I have *finished* my breakfast. (Not I am *through* my breakfast.)

I have *finished* this task. (Not I am *through* this task.)

When the speaker had *finished*, the audience

heartily applauded him. (Not: When the speaker was *through*, etc.)

Note.—*Through* is correct when the meaning is from beginning to end; transition from one point or part to another.

He went *through* the ordeal bravely. (From beginning to end.)

He jumped *through* the window. (From one point to another.)

He went *through* the house. (From one part to another.)

Got and Gotten.

Rule.—Use *got* without *have*, *has*, or *had* to express past time.

Use either *got* or *gotten* with *have*, *has*, or *had* to express perfect time, unless possession, necessity, or obligation is expressed.

He *got* the book this morning.

I *have got* or *gotten* to the point where I need the assistance of others.

I *have got* or *gotten* the price that I asked.

They *have got* or *gotten* all the information that they sought.

I *have gotten* this knowledge by hard work.

Caution.—*Got* or *Gotten* is superfluous in the following sentences:

I have *got* my purse. (Possession.)

I have *got* to go. (Necessity.)

Give and Donate.

Specific Rule.—Do not use the word *donate* for the simple word *give*, unless the gift is important and special.

He *gave* five dollars to the organ fund. (Not *donated*.)

She *gave* five dollars to the Ladies' Aid Society. (Not *donated*.)

She *gave* her services for the afternoon. (Not *donated*.)

She *gave* a fruit-cake to the committee on refreshments. (Not *donated*.)

Will you *give* ten dollars to this organization? (Not *donate*.)

I wish that you would *give* fifty dollars to this relief fund. (Not *donate*.)

Note.—In the following sentence, *donate* is correctly used:

Andrew Carnegie has *donated* several millions of dollars to the cause of education.

Happened and Transpired.

Specific Rule.—Do not use the word *transpire*, which means *to make known*, for the word *happen*, or *occur*.

What *happened* while I was out of town? (Not *transpired*.)

Tell me what *happened* in my absence. (Not *transpired*.)

What *occurred* of importance while you were in New York? (Not *transpired*.)

Several events *occurred* to make the occasion interesting. (Not *transpired*.)

The events to which I refer *occurred* in rapid succession. (Not *transpired*.)

I can think of nothing important that *happened* in your absence. (Not *transpired*.)

I wish that you would tell me of the incidents in the order that they *occurred*. (Not *transpired*.)

Informed and Posted.

Specific Rule.—Do not use the verb *posted* for the verb *informed*.

She is very well *informed*. (Not *posted*.)

He is thoroughly *informed* on all the points involved in the case. (Not *posted*.)

Do you consider him well *informed* on this subject? (Not *posted*.)

He seems thoroughly *informed* on all general topics of interest. (Not *posted*.)

He certainly is thoroughly *informed* as to the merits of your case. (Not *posted*.)

How do you account for his being so well *informed* about the matter? (Not *posted*.)

I shall *inform* myself thoroughly as to the

merits of the case before promising to take it.
(Not *post.*)

I wish him to become *informed* as to the requirements of the position before he decides to accept it. (Not *posted.*)

Intend and Propose.

Specific Rule.—Do not use the verb *propose* for the verb *intend*.

I do not *intend* to be imposed on. (Not *propose.*)

I do not *intend* to have him dictate to me what I shall do. (Not *propose.*)

I do not *intend* to tell him all my affairs. (Not *propose.*)

He *proposed* to her. (Made her an offer of marriage.)

He *proposed* the bill himself. (Presented it to a legislative body, for example.)

He *proposed* his friend as a candidate for membership. (Announced the name of his friend.)

Does she *purpose* giving up her position in the choir? (Not *propose.*)

Do you *purpose* leaving Chicago? (Not *propose.*)

Lend and Loan.

Specific Rule.—Do not use the noun *loan* for the verb *lend*, except in money transactions.

Shall I *lend* him these books? (Not *loan*.)

I *lent* him a hundred dollars. (Or *loaned*.)

She *lent* him her umbrella. (Not *loaned*.)

She said that she could not think of *lending* him the money. (Or *loaning*.)

Note.—*Loan* is correctly used in the following:

He asked me for a *loan* of one hundred dollars.

Note.—The expression “money to loan” is correct, *to loan* being a verbal noun, with the preposition *for* understood but not expressed.

Lie and Lay.

Rule.—Use *lie*, *lay*, *lying*, *lain*, to express rest; use *lay*, *laid*, *laying*, *laid*, to express cause to rest.

DRILL.

LIE:

I *shall lie* down for half an hour. (Rest.)

I *lay* on the sofa by the window last night, and caught cold. (Rest.)

I told her *to lie* down, and she *is lying* down. (Rest.)

I *had lain* on the sofa an hour before I realized where I was.

Let us *lie* in the shade.

I *have been lying* in the shade.

The book is *lying* on the table. (Resting.)

Caution.—Note that *lay* expresses rest only in the past tense in the foregoing. It expresses action in the present or the future tense.

LAY:

Lay the book where you found it. (Present tense.—Cause to lie.)

I told him to *lay* the book where he found it. (Present tense of the infinitive.—Cause to lie.)

I *shall lay* the book where I found it. (Future tense.—Cause to lie.)

He *will lay* the book where he found it. (Future tense.—Cause to lie.)

Can you *lay* the carpet? (Present tense.—Cause to lie.)

Lay the baby on the bed. (Present tense.—Cause to lie.)

The man *was laying* the carpet when I came. (Cause to lie.)

He *has laid* the carpet. (Cause to lie.)

I *have been laying* the clothes away.

I *had laid* the clothes away before she came.

Proved and Proven.

Specific Rule.—Do not use the form *proven* for the form *proved*.

The plan has *proved* to be feasible. (Not *proven*.)

She has *proved* herself to be worthy of the name of friend. (Not *proven*.)

It was *proved* that he was innocent. (Not *proven*.)

The goods were *proved* to be damaged. (Not *proven*.)

The truth of the story can be easily *proved*. (Not *proven*.)

The falsity of the story has been *proved*. (Not *proven*.)

He has *proved* to be thoroughly reliable in every respect. (Not *proven*.)

The stock has been *proved* to be utterly worthless. (Not *proven*.)

He has *proved* himself to be a gentleman. (Not *proven*.)

He has *proved* to be honest in all his dealings. (Not *proven*.)

Note.—The wording of the Scotch verdict “not proven,” must not be confused with the misuse of *proven* not employed as a legal term.

Sit and Set.

Rule.—Use *sit, sat, sitting, sat*, to express rest; use *set, set, setting, set* to express to cause to sit.

DRILL

SIT:

I *shall sit* under the trees.

Shall you *sit* under the trees?

I told her *to sit* on the bench until I came.

I *sat* under the trees all the afternoon.

I *have been sitting* under the trees.

SET:

Set the box under the bench.

Set the flowers on the table.

Do not set the lamp there.

Shall I *set it here*?

I *have set it* just where I found it.

I *had set it* where I thought no one would see it.

Note.—*Seat* is used in constructions like the following: “She *seated* the guests at the table.”

Shall and Will.

Rule.—*Shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and the third, express simple futurity or a condition beyond the control of the will. *Will* in the first person and *shall* in the second and the third, express promise (or willingness), determination.

DRILLS.

Simple Futurity.

Shall.

I *shall* see him face to face.

We *shall* speak of only education and liberty.

We *shall* never learn how fatal this tendency is.

Perhaps I *shall* find my book.

I *shall* be satisfied.

Unless it rains, we *shall* be sure to go.

I *shall* leave Chicago for New York next week.

I *shall* be at my office at nine o'clock.

I *shall* not go if it rains.

We *shall* expect you to-morrow.

We *shall* see her in the evening.

I *shall* tell her that you said so.

I *shall* give this immediate attention.

I *shall* expect your check as indicated in your letter.

Simple Futurity.

Will.

He *will* call next week.

He *will* see her this evening.

He *will* call for me on his way to school.

She *will* call with her sister.

They *will* go to Europe in the spring.

They *will* never be ready.

It *will* not do to let the corporal command the general.

I am sure that he *will* soon recognize its worth.

It is true, you *will* have attacked only one little corner, but you *will* have done what you could.

I fear that they *will* have their trouble for their pains.

If this is the plan that they have adopted, they *will* not succeed.

Condition Beyond the Control of the Will. Shall.

I *shall* like her, I know.

I know that I *shall* like her.

I know that we *shall* like her.

I know that I *shall* be sorry.

I know that we *shall* be sorry.

I *shall* be obliged to go.

I *shall* be obliged to refuse your request.

I *shall* regret your absence.

I *shall* be disappointed if you do not come.

If I eat this, I *shall* be ill.

If I walk to the city, I *shall* become fatigued.

If I do not wear my rubbers, I *shall* be ill.

If I do not study now, I *shall* regret not doing so later.

I *shall* be very glad to meet her.

I *shall* be unhappy if he does not come.

Note.—Use “will” in the second and the third person; as, “You *will* like her;” “He *will* like her.”

Promise or Determination.

Will.

We *will* do this for you.

I *will* not be hampered.

I *will* go to town.

I *will* not go one step.

"I *will* not run," answered Herbert stubbornly.

I *will* go myself now and *will* not return until all is finished.

Note.—While *shall* and *will* are used in the plural the same as in the singular, caution must be observed in the first person (*we*) in order to determine whether *shall* or *will* is the dominating auxiliary. The rule to be observed is as follows: When the condition is beyond the control of the person or persons other than the speaker (or as well as the speaker), *shall* is the required auxiliary; when the condition is not beyond the control of the person or persons other than speaker, *will* is required, the *willingness* of the persons involved being expressed by *will*; thus:

(Condition beyond the control of persons involved.)

We *shall* have rain before night.

If we go now, we *shall* find him at his office.

If we do not hurry, we *shall* miss the train.

We *shall* arrive at Chicago at four o'clock.

(Condition not beyond the control of the persons involved.)

Come to my office and we *will* talk the matter over.

Come to my office and we *will* look over the accounts.

Call at six o'clock, if you will, and we *will* talk the matter over.

Take a half-holiday, and we *will* motor to the beach.

I *will* do as you wish.

We *will* do whatever is fair.

We *will* not yield under any circumstances.

We *will* not pay one cent.

We *will* not permit this to continue.

Promise or Determination. Shall.

You *shall* not go under any circumstances.

You *shall* have the money next week.

He *shall* have a new coat.

He *shall* not go.

They *shall* suffer for this.

They *shall* have the books in the morning.

Make yourself intelligible to the humble, so *shall* you accomplish a work of emancipation and peace.

He *shall* go to town.

It has been divinely declared, "Man *shall* not live by bread alone."

You *shall* not leave the room.

He *shall* do as I tell him.

He is resolved that Mary *shall* go.

You *shall* not have one cent.

Never mind, my lad, while I live you *shall* never want a friend to stand by you.

The Auxiliary in Interrogative Sentences.

Rule.—The auxiliary that is required in the answer must be used in the question when the person spoken to controls the speaker or the person spoken of, or when each one does as he pleases.

Shall you go? (Answer: I *shall* go.) Person spoken to controls.

Shall he go? (Answer: He *shall* go.) Person spoken to controls.

Shall they go? (Answer: They *shall* go.) Person spoken to controls.

Will you go? (Answer: I *will* go.) Person spoken to does as he pleases.

Will he go? (Answer: He *will* go.) Person spoken of does as he pleases.

Will they go? (Answer: They *will* go.) Persons spoken of do as they please.

Note.—When the person spoken to does not control the speaker, *will* is used in the answer; thus: "*Shall* I be ill if I eat this?" the answer is, "Yes; you *will*," or "I think that you *will*." On the other hand, in the sentence, "*Shall* I never have your consent?" the answer is, "No; you *shall* not," or "Yes; you *shall*," the speaker being under the control of the person spoken to.

Shall I assist you? (Answer: Yes; if you *will* please.)

Shall I get the book for you? (Answer: Yes; if you *will* please.)

Shall I never receive your forgiveness? (Answer: No; you *shall* not.)

Shall I find you at home on Wednesday?

(Answer: Yes; you *will*.)

(If promise is exacted, the answer is, Yes; you *shall*.)

Shall I call on your friend while in the city?
(Yes; if you *will*.)

Shall I find the book in the library? (Answer: Yes; you *will*.)

Shall I find the papers in your desk? (Answer: Yes; you *will*.)

Shall I be obliged to go? (Answer: Yes; you *will*, if futurity is to be expressed, or Yes; you *shall*, if second person controls.)

Shall you be obliged to do this? (Answer: Yes; I *shall*.)

Shall he be obliged to do this? (Answer: Yes; he *shall*, that is, if the person spoken to controls.)

Note.—“*Will* I” is not used to ask a question of another, as no one can answer the question but the speaker.

Should and Would.

General Rule.—*Should* and *would* follow in the main the rules of *shall* and *will*, with some special uses of their own. When there is no controlling influence from without, *should* in the first person and *would* in the second and the third express simple contingent futurity, condition beyond the control of the will.

2. *Should* in the first person expresses plan, and in all three persons, propriety or subjunctive futurity.

3. *Would* in the first person expresses determination, resolution, and in all three persons, willingness or custom.

DRILLS.

Contingent Futurity and Plan.

Should.

If he were to invite me, I *should* go. (Contingent futurity and plan.)

If he were to invite you, I suppose that you *would* go. (Contingent futurity.)

If she were to invite him, I suppose that he *would* go. (Contingent futurity.)

If I were to hear from her this afternoon, I *should* go. (Contingent futurity and plan.)

If I were going abroad, I *should* study French. (Contingent futurity and plan.)

I *should* call if I were you. (Contingent futurity and plan.)

I *should* not hesitate to say so if I were in your place. (Contingent futurity.)

I *should* object to her going, if I were you. (Contingent futurity.)

I *should* go to New York next week, if I had the money. (Contingent futurity and plan.)

Condition Beyond the Control of the Will.

If I were to eat this, I *should* be ill.

If you were to eat this you *would* be ill.

If he were to eat this, he *would* be ill.

I *should* like to see you.

You *would* like her and so *would* he.

I *should* like to say a few words.

I *should* like to speak with you.

You *would* like her if you knew her.

He *would* like her if he knew her.

I *should* be pleased to meet her.

I *should* be pleased to see you.

I *should* like to address the convention.

I *should* like to be a writer.

I *should* not like to be she.

I *should* not like to be he.

I *shall* be obliged to go.

I *should* be much obliged to you, if you would do so.

Note that in all the foregoing sentences, when it is correct to use *should* in the first person (*I, we*), it is correct to use *would* in the second and the third (*you, he, they*).

Should and Ought.

The specific use of "should" is to express *propriety* or *expediency*, but it is often used in a stronger sense to express duty. Thus, in strict usage, we should say, "Children *ought* to obey their parents." (Moral obligation.) "Children *should* be seen and not heard." (Propriety.)

I know that I *should* not do so. (Propriety.)

Children *ought* to obey their parents. (Duty.)

You *should* always arrange your hair in that way. (Propriety.)

You *ought* not to treat your sister so unkindly. (Duty.)

You *should* call on your friends more frequently. (Propriety.)

You *ought* to assist your parents. (Propriety.)

Subjunctive Futurity.

Should.

If he *should* come, we should go.

If you *should* come, I should go.

If I *should* do that, you would not forgive me.

Determination, Willingness, Custom.**Would.**

I *would* never consent. (Determination.)

I *would* not give him one cent. (Determination.)

When he was a boy, he *would* always run to school. (Custom.)

I *would* do this for you, certainly. (Willingness.)

You *would* do this for me I know and so *would* he. (Willingness.)

I know that he *would* do this with pleasure. (Willingness.)

When I was a child, I *would* sit and dream for hours at a time. (Custom.)

The Auxiliary in Interrogative Sentences.

The same rule obtains as in *shall* and *will*.

Drill.

Sister—I *shall* go East. (Simple futurity.)

Interrogation.—Did you say that you *should* go East?

Sister—I *will* do that for you. (Promise or willingness.)

Interrogation.—Did you say that you *would* do that for me?

She—I *shall* not go to town to-day. (Simple futurity.)

Interrogation.—Did you say that you *should* not go to town to-day?

Did she say that she *should* not go to town to-day?

Sister—I *will* call for you when I go. (Promise or willingness.)

Interrogation.—Did you say that you *would* call for me?

Did she say that she *would* call for me?

He—I *shall* not go to town.

Did you say that you *should* not go to town?

Interrogation.—Did he say that he *should* not go to town?

He—I *will* get it for you. (Promise or willingness.)

Interrogation.—Did he say that he *would* get it for me?

Did you say that you *would* get it for me?

Sister—I think that I *shall* go. (Doubtful futurity.)

Interrogation.—Did you say that you thought you *should* go?

Did she say that she thought she *should* go?

Sister—He thinks that he *shall* go. (Doubtful futurity.)

Interrogation.—Did he say that he thought he *should* go?

Can and May.

Can denotes *ability*; *may*, *permission*; in consequence, the expression, “*Can* I go?” for “*May* I go?” is incorrect. While *may* is required to ask permission, *can* must be used to deny the request; thus: “*May* I go?” “*You cannot* go.”

Note.—When expressing ability *can* is generally employed, although *may* is sometimes used when *can* would be expected; as, “I will do this in order that you *may* go.”

May and Might.

There is no essential difference between the uses of *may* and *might*, the words being em-

played according to the tense form required. Thus, the present tense form, "I *may* go if I can find some one to accompany me," becomes in the past tense, "I *might* go if I could find some one to accompany me;" "He *says* that I *may* go," becomes "He *said* that I *might* go."

May, Can, Might, Could.

<i>May</i> I go?	You <i>may</i> go.
<i>May</i> I go?	You <i>cannot</i> go.
<i>May</i> he go?	He <i>cannot</i> go.
<i>May</i> she go?	She <i>may</i> go.
<i>May</i> she go?	She <i>cannot</i> go.

(*Cannot* is also written *can not*.)

I know that I *can* do this.

I know that I *could* do this if I were to try.

I know that he *could* do this if he were to try.

I *could* go if I had the money.

I *might* go if I had the money.

I *might* have gone if I could have got the money.

I *might* win the prize if I were to try for it.

May and *might* have special uses in the following:

Possibility He *may* return.

He *might* come this evening if we were to invite him.

Concession I concede that he *may* be in the right.
I conceded that he *might* be in the right.

Wish I hope you *may* succeed.
I hoped you *might* succeed.

Chance He *may* become a great man.
 You *might* miss seeing him if you
 were to go now.

Suppose and Expect.

Specific Rule.—Do not use *expect* in the place of *suppose*.

Note.—*Expect* properly refers to the *future*; *suppose* to the present, past, or future. Again, *expect* expresses *expectation*, and should not be used for *suppose*, which expresses a supposition; thus: we should say, "I *suppose* you will go;" on the other hand we say, "I *expect* him this evening."

I *suppose* that you will have a pleasant time this evening. (Not *expect*.)

I *suppose* that he is offended. (Not *expect*.)

I *suppose* that he will be late this evening. (Not *expect*.)

I *suppose* that you were late to school this morning. (Not *expect*.)

I *suppose* that you will go if nothing occurs to prevent. (Not *expect*.)

I *suppose* that your brother went to New York this morning as he had planned to do. (Not *expect*.)

Note.—*Expect* is properly used in the following:

I *expect* to go to New York next week.

I am *expecting* my husband home this evening.

I am *expecting* a telegram every minute.

I am *expecting* a letter from my brother.

Suppose, Think, Guess. *Suppose* is used when an opinion is based upon grounds that one has good reason to believe exist; as, "I *suppose* that he will come." *Think* is used when an opinion is reached after one has given a subject thought, but where one is not in possession of exact knowledge; as, "I *think* that he will come." *Guess* is used when an opinion is based merely upon probable grounds; as, "See whether you can *guess* who he is."

Don't Think.

In strict usage, "I think that I shall not," not "I don't think that I shall," is the correct form; but, as "I don't think" has the sanction of almost universal employment, it should not be censured.

THE INDICATIVE AND THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Mode is the manner in which a statement is made.

In the **INDICATIVE** mode a statement expresses a fact; in the **SUBJUNCTIVE** mode merely a supposition; thus, indicative, "If I was in the wrong (or you say that I was), I apologize;" subjunctive, "If I were in the wrong (but I am not), I should apologize."

If It Is and If It Be.

The indicative form "if it is" is used by many of the best speakers and writers in place of the subjunctive "if it be." Thus: instead of saying, "If the book *be* in the library" (not sure about it), I will get it for you, one may say, "If the book *is* in the library" (not sure about it), I will get it for you. In other words, while the forms "if I *were*," "if I *had been*," etc., still obtain, the present tense forms "if I (he, she, or it)

be," are gradually passing into disuse. This is true of all present tense forms of the subjunctive mode. Thus: instead of "if it *rain*, I shall not go," we say, with propriety, "if it *rains*, I shall not go." Instead of "if he *have* the book, he will lend it to you," we say, "if he *has* the book, he will lend it to you." But, as has been indicated, "if I *was*" (*he, she, or it was*), "if I *were*" (*he, she, or it were*) still have distinct meanings.

DRILL.

If the book *is* in the library (or *be*, if one wishes still to use the subjunctive), I shall get it.

If the book *is* in the library (and it *is* [indicative]), why do you not get it?

If the book *was* in the library (and it *was*), why did you not get it?

If the book *were* in the library (but it *is not*), I should get it.

If the book *had been* in the library (but it *was not*), I should have gotten it.

Note.—In connection with the present tense of the subjunctive mode, note that it may express either present or subjunctive future time; thus: the constructions "If this *be* in your jurisdiction," or "If this should be (were to be) in your jurisdiction, I should like to learn of your decision," are used interchangeably. Again, in other uses the present tense form "*be*" is not interchangeable with the future form "*should be*" in such constructions as the following: Thus: "If this *be* your decision," expresses present time; "If this *should be* your decision," future time.

If I Was and If I Were.

Rule.—“If I *was*” (*he, she, or it was*) is correct when the words “and I (*he, she, or it*) *was*” can be supplemented; “If I *were*” (*he, she, or it were*), when the words “but I *am* not” (*or he, she, or it is not*), can be supplemented.

If I *was* in the wrong (and I *was*, or you say that I *was*), why, I apologize.

If he *was* in the wrong (and it is evident that he *was*), he has atoned for his misdemeanor.

If she *was* in the wrong (and I assume that she *was*), she will apologize.

If I *were* in the wrong (but I *am* not), I should apologize.

If he *were* in the wrong (but he *is* not), he would apologize.

If she *were* in the wrong (but she *is* not), she would apologize.

If the book *was* in the library (and it *was*) why did you not get it?

If the book *were* in the library (but it *is* not) I should get it.

If your brother *was* at home (and you say that he *was*), why did you not see him?

If your brother *were* at home (but he *is* not), he would see you.

If the cup *was* cracked (and it *was*, or and you say that it *was*), why did you buy it?

If the cup *were* cracked (but it *is* not), I should take it back.

If the piano *was* out of tune (and it *was*), why did you not have it tuned?

I Wish I Were (Not I Wish I Was).

Rule.—The subjunctive form “were” (or *had been*, etc.) is required after the expression of a wish.

DRILL.

I wish that I *were* going. (Not *was*.)

I wish that he *were* going. (Not *was*.)

I wish that she *were* going. (Not *was*.)

I wish that the train *were* here. (Not *was*.)

I wish that book *were* in the library. (Not *was*.)

Do you wish that I (he, she) *were* there? (Not *was*.)

Do you wish that he *were* here? (Not *was*.)

Do you wish that she *were* here? (Not *was*.)

She wishes that she *were* here. (Not *was*.)

I wish that I *were* not handicapped by these conditions. (But I *am*.)

I wish that I *had not been* handicapped by these conditions. (But I *was*.)

I wish that she *were* not handicapped by these conditions. (But she *is*.)

I wish that she *had not been* handicapped by these conditions. (But she *was*.)

I wish that I *were* able to help you. (But I *am not*.)

I wish that he *were* able to help you. (But he *is not*.)

I wish that she *were* able to help you. (But she *is not*.)

I wish that I *had been* able to help you. (But I *was not*.)

I wish that she *had been* able to help you. (But she *was not*.)

She wishes that she *were* a writer, author, editor, doctor. (Not *was*.)

Note.—In all the foregoing constructions, the words, “but *I* (*he* or *she*) *am* not (or *is* not),” can be supplemented to express the meaning more fully. That is, for example, “I wish that *I were* he,” but *I am* not he; “I wish that he *were* here,” but *he is* not here; in the following sentences, the words, “but *I* (*he* or *she*) *was* (or *was* not)” can be supplemented. In other words, the past tense *were* of the subjunctive mode expresses present time; the past perfect tense *had been*, past time.

I wish that I *had been* there when he told you that story. (But I *was* not.)

I wish that he *had been* there. (But he *was* not.)

CONTRACTIONS.

**I’m Not, You’re Not, He’s Not, We’re Not,
They’re Not.**

Contractions are in accordance with the conversational employment of the language.

The contractions *you’re not*, *he’s not*, *we’re not*, *they’re not*, are regarded as preferable to *you aren’t*, *he isn’t*, *we aren’t*, *they aren’t*; in the interrogative form, the contractions *aren’t you*, *isn’t he*, *aren’t we*, *aren’t they* are required. *I’m not* in the declarative and *am I not* in the interrogative form, are required, as *I ain’t* and *ain’t I* are incorrect, and are invariably avoided by good speakers. The use of “ain’t” for “isn’t,” is a vulgarity.

<i>I'm</i> not invited.	<i>We're</i> not invited.
<i>You're</i> not invited.	<i>You're</i> not invited.
<i>He's</i> not invited.	<i>They're</i> not invited.
<i>Am</i> I not invited?	<i>Aren't</i> we invited?
<i>Aren't</i> you invited?	<i>Aren't</i> you invited?
<i>Isn't</i> he invited?	<i>Aren't</i> they invited?

Note.—In dignified utterance and in formal letter-writing, contractions are not permissible.

Daresn't.

As *daresn't* is properly a contraction of *dares not* in the third person, singular number, and as *dare not* is the required form in the second person, singular and plural, "*You daresn't*" is always incorrect.

"*I dare*," "*You dare*," "*He (or she) dares*" (or *dare*), is the conjugation of the verb; in consequence, the proper contractions are: "*I daren't*," "*You daren't*," "*He (or she) daresn't* (or *daren't*)."
Again, "*You durstn't*" and "*He durstn't*" (pronounced *durssent*), frequently employed by careless speakers as a present tense form, is also incorrect, *durstn't* being a proper contraction of the past tense form *durst not*, and, consequently, correctly employed only in such constructions as, "*She told him that he durstn't go*;" "*He did not go because he durstn't*" (pronounced *dursent*). (*Durst not* or *dared not* is the form of the past tense.)

Don't and Doesn't.

Specific Rule.—The contractions *I don't*, *you don't*, *he doesn't*, *we don't*, *you don't*, *they don't*, are in accordance with the conversational employment of the language.

"He (she or it) *don't*" for "He (she or it) *doesn't*" is always incorrect.

(Tuesday.)

I *don't* know.

We *don't* know.

You *don't* know.

You *don't* know.

He *doesn't* know. (Not

They *don't* know.

"He *don't*.")

Don't I know?

Don't we know?

Don't you know?

Don't you know?

Doesn't he know?

Don't they know?

She *doesn't* know.

Doesn't she know?

Doesn't the bell ring?

The bell *doesn't* ring.

It *doesn't* make any difference, I shall not go.

Doesn't the music affect you?

Doesn't she wish to go?

She *doesn't* wish to go.

Why *doesn't* she come?

It *doesn't* matter.

Why *doesn't* he write?

Have, Has, Had.

I *haven't* my umbrella.

Haven't you your umbrella?

He *hasn't* his umbrella.

She *hasn't* her umbrella.

He *hadn't* his umbrella when he came in.

I *hadn't* seen her for several days.

Mayn't and Can't.

Specific Rule.—*Mayn't* I (or *may I not*) is correct in the interrogative form; *you can't* (or *you can not*) in the declarative form.

In this connection note that "may" is used in the interrogative form when asking and granting permission, and that "can" is used in the declarative form when denying permission.

Mayn't I go?

(Or *May* I go?) No; you *can't* (or *can not*).

Mayn't I have it?

(Or *May* I not have it?) No, you *can't* (or *can not*).

May I see him? No; you *can not* (or *can't*).

May the children play in the study? No; they *can not* (or *can't*).

In this connection, note that *can* expresses ability, and must not be confused with *may* when permission is to be expressed; thus:

May I assist you? (Permission.)

Can I assist you? (Ability; that is, "*Is it in my power,*" or "*Am I able to assist you.*")

In this connection, note that one may use either of the following: "*May* I assist you?" ("Have I permission to assist you?") "*Can* I assist you?" ("Have I the ability or power to assist you?") "*Shall* I assist you?" (Simple futurity.)

Shan't and Won't.

Specific Rule.—The contractions "shan't" and "won't" are in accordance with the conversational usage of the language.

Shan't you (or *shall* you not) see her again? (Simple futurity.)

No; *I shan't* (or *shall not*). (Simple futurity.)

Shan't you be able to attend to these matters? (Simple futurity.)

Won't she come to see me? (Simple futurity.)

No; she *won't*. (Simple futurity.)

I *won't* go under any circumstances. (Determination.)

You *shan't* go if I can have any voice in the matter. (Determination.)

You *shan't* lose one dollar. (Promise.)

He *shan't* go out to play to-day. (Determination.)

In interrogative sentences, "not" is sometimes used when there is no particular sense of negation implied; but, as a rule, its presence indicates negation. Thus, one says, "*Shall you not* see her again before you go abroad?" meaning, "Do I understand that you are not going to see her before going abroad?"

Was and Were.

Wasn't he going?

Wasn't she going?

She *wasn't* going.

He *wasn't* going.

Note.—"*Wasn't* you" and "*You wasn't*" are always incorrect, *weren't* (like *were*) being used for both the singular and the plural.

Weren't you going when I came in?

Weren't they going?

We *weren't* going until this afternoon.

Why *weren't* you going?

Case of Pronouns After Transitive Verbs.

Me, Him, Her, Us, Them.

Rule.—Use the objective forms *me, him, her, us, them* after verbs expressing action, when the action is produced by the subject.

I wish that she would invite you and *me* to her reception. (Not *I*.)

I wish that she would invite you and *him* to her reception. (Not *he*.)

He has invited you and *her*. (Not *she*.)

He has invited you and *us*. (Not *we*.)

He has invited you and *them*. (Not *they*.)

I wish that he would take you and *her* to the theater. (Not *she*.)

I wish that he would take you and *him* to the theater. (Not *he*.)

I wish that he would take you and *us* to the theater. (Not *we*.)

I wish that he would take you and *them* to the theater. (Not *they*.)

I wish that she would invite you and *us* to her reception. (Not *we*.)

I wish that she would invite you and *them* to her reception. (Not *they*.)

I wish that he would tell you and *me* what he has decided to do. (Not *I*.)

I wish that he would tell you and *her* what he has decided to do. (Not *she*.)

I wish that he would tell you and *us* what he has decided to do. (Not *we*.)

I wish that he would tell you and *them* what he has decided to do. (Not *they*.)

I wish that they would choose you and *me* as delegates. (Not *I*.)

I wish that they would choose you and *her* as delegates. (Not *she*.)

I wish that they would choose you and *him* as delegates. (Not *he*.)

I wish that they would choose you and *us* as delegates. (Not *we*.)

I wish that they would choose you and *them* as delegates. (Not *they*.)

She has dragged you and *me* into this trouble. (Not *I*.)

She has dragged you and *her* into this trouble. (Not *she*.)

She has dragged you and *him* into this trouble. (Not *he*.)

She has dragged you and *us* into this trouble. (Not *we*.)

She has dragged you and *them* into this trouble. (Not *they*.)

He said that he would drive you and *me* home. (Not *I*.)

He said that he would drive you and *her* home. (Not *she*.)

He said that he would drive you and *him* home. (Not *he*.)

He said that he would drive you and *us* home. (Not *we*.)

He said that he would drive you and *them* home. (Not *they*.)

She has forgiven you and *me* for the fancied slight. (Not *I*.)

She has forgiven you and *her* for the fancied slight. (Not *she*.)

She has forgiven you and *him* for the fancied slight. (Not *he*.)

She has forgiven you and *us* for the fancied slight. (Not *we*.)

She has forgiven you and *them* for the fancied slight. (Not *they*.)

He told you and *her* to find the money. (Not *she*.)

He asked you and *us* not to forsake him. (Not *we*.)

He asked you and *them* to get the books. (Not *they*.)

He asked you and *me* to give him the letter. (Not *I*.)

He asked you and *me* to apologize. (Not *I*.)

He asked you and *me* to put the papers where we found them. (Not *I*.)

He asked you and *me* to tell him all the news. (Not *I*.)

He asked you and *me* to ring the bell. (Not *I*.)

Note.—Sometimes the preposition *to*, the sign of the infinitive, is omitted; thus: Let you **and** me decide the question. (*To* decide.)

Let you and *me* decide this question. (Not *I*.)

Let you and *her* decide this question. (Not *she*.)

Let you and *him* decide this question. (Not *he*.)

Let you and *us* decide this question. (Not *we*.)

Let *her* and *him* decide this question. (Not *she* and *he*.)

Let you and *me* go to the theater. (Not *I*.)

Rule 4.—The objective forms *me*, *her*, *him*, *us*, *them*, are always used after the infinitive when the infinitive is a verb.

She told her to give you and *me* the books. (Not *I*.) Note that the infinitive is always a verb when it has a subject and that the subject is in the objective case. In the sentence, "She told her to give you and me the book," the infinitive *to give* is a verb, for the reason that it has a subject (*her*), which is in the objective case.

She told her to give you and *him* the books. (Not *he*.)

She told her to invite you and *me*. (Not *I*.)

She told me to invite you and *her*. (Not *she*.)

I asked her to excuse you and *me*. (Not *I*.)

I asked her to excuse you and *her*. (Not *she*.)

I must ask you to excuse him and *me*. (Not *he* and *I*.)

I must ask you to excuse *her* and *me*. (Not *she* and *I*.)

She told me to invite you and *him* to go. (Not *he*.)

She told me to invite you and *her* to go. (Not *she*.)

She told me to invite you and *them* to go. (Not *they*.)

She is going to invite you and *me* to the theater. (Not *I*.)

She is going to take you and *me*. (Not *I*.)

She told you to teach *him* and *me*. (Not *he* and *I*.)

She told you to teach *us* and *them*. (Not *we* and *they*.)

She told him not to forget you and *me*. (Not *I*.)

She told him not to forget you and *us*. (Not *we*.)

She told him not to sell you and *me* the goods.
(Not *I*.)

She told him not to give you and *me* the papers.
(Not *I*.)

She told him not to spare you and *me* in the least. (Not *I*.)

She asked him to entertain you and *me* at dinner. (Not *I*.)

I, She, He, We, They.

Rule.—Use the nominative forms *I, he, she, we, they* when the pronoun is to perform the action.

Note that one is not apt to err in the following:

He thought that you and *I* should go.

He thought that you and *she* should go.

He thought that you and *he* should go.

He thought that you and *we* should go.

He thought that you and *they* should go.

CASE OF PRONOUNS AFTER THE VERB "BE."

Rule.—The noun or pronoun after the verb "be" is in the same case as the noun or pronoun before the verb "be."

Conjugation of the Verb "Be."

Indicative Mode.

Note.—The forms "thou art," "thou wast," "thou wilt be," "thou hast been," "thou hadst been," "thou wilt have been" are used only in poetry, in addressing the Deity, and in exceptional utterances, the plural form *you* being used for the singular as well.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I am,	We are,
2. You are,	You are,
3. He is,	They are.

Past Tense.

- | | |
|--------------|------------|
| 1. I was, | We were, |
| 2. You were, | You were, |
| 3. He was, | They were. |

Future Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------|---------------|
| 1. I shall be, | We shall be, |
| 2. You will be, | You will be, |
| 3. He will be, | They will be. |

Present Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1. I have been, | We have been, |
| 2. You have been, | You have been, |
| 3. He has been, | They have been. |

Past Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|------------------|----------------|
| 1. I had been, | We had been, |
| 2. You had been, | You had been, |
| 3. He had been, | They had been. |

Future Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. I shall have been, | We shall have been, |
| 2. You will have been, | You will have been, |
| 3. He will have been, | They will have been. |

Special Tense Forms.

(b) Imperative Mode.—*Present*, singular and plural, *be* (thou and you).

(c) Infinitive.—*Present*, *to be*; perfect, *to have been*.

(d) Participles.—*Present*, *being*; past, *been*; perfect, *having been*.

(e) Gerunds.—*Present*, *being*; present perfect, *having been*.

I, He, She, We, They.

Special Rule.—The pronouns *I, he, she, we, they* follow the verbs *am, is, was, were, have been, has been, had been, can be, could be, may be, might be, shall be, will be*.

It is <i>I</i> .	You are not <i>I</i> .
I am <i>he</i> .	That is not <i>she</i> .
I am <i>she</i> .	That is <i>he</i> .
It is <i>he</i> .	That is not <i>he</i> .
It is <i>she</i> .	It is <i>we</i> .
It is <i>we</i> .	It is not <i>we</i> .
It is <i>they</i> .	It is <i>they</i> .
It is not <i>I</i> .	It is not <i>they</i> .
It is not <i>he</i> .	We are not <i>they</i> .
It is not <i>she</i> .	They are not <i>we</i> .
It is not <i>we</i> .	You are not <i>we</i> .
It is not <i>they</i> .	Those are <i>they</i> .
He is not <i>I</i> .	Those are not <i>they</i> .
You are not <i>he</i> .	These are <i>they</i> .
She is not <i>he</i> .	These are not <i>they</i> .

It was not *I* that spoke.

It was not *she* who called.

It was not *we* who made the mistake.

It was not *they* to whom he referred.

It could not have been *I*, for I was out of town.

It could not have been *they* who called.

It may have been *he*.

It might be *she*.

It might have been *she*.

I hardly think that it was *he* to whom Mr. Blank referred.

I think it was *she*, not *he* who called.

He thinks it was *I* who called.

He thinks it was *she* who invited him.

They know it was not *we* who engaged the rooms.

He feared that it was *I* who wrote the letter.

He says it was *he* who sold her the goods.

We think it is *they*, and they think it is *we*.
It is *I* to whom you are speaking.
Is it *she* to whom you refer?
Is it *we* that are to receive the gifts?
It was *they* whom you mean.
You will find that it was *she* who did it.
Is it *they* whom you mean?
I think that you will find that it was *she* who did it.

The Infinitive To Be.

Rule.—The subject of the infinitive verb is in the objective case; hence the infinitive when a verb is always preceded by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case.

Caution.—When the pronoun follows the infinitive “to be,” caution is necessary, thus: in the sentence, “I supposed it to be him,” *him*, and not *he* is required, for the reason that “to be” is a verb in this sentence and as the objective case always precedes the infinitive verb, the objective case must always follow the infinitive verb,—thus in accordance with the rule: The noun or pronoun after the verb “to be” is in the same case as the noun or pronoun before the verb “to be.”

Me, Her, Him, Us, Them.

Special Rule.—The pronouns *me*, *her*, *him*, *us*, *them*, follow *to be* when *to be* is preceded by a noun or a pronoun.

They supposed it to be *me*.

I supposed it to be *her*.

I thought it to be *him*.

Did they suppose it to be *me*?

I cannot imagine it to be *her*.

I cannot imagine it to be *him*.

Can you imagine it to be *them*?

How could you suppose it to be *me*?

How could you suppose it to be *them*?

Rule.—The noun or pronoun that follows the infinitive “to be” when the infinitive is not a verb, is in the nominative case.

I, He, She, We, They.

Special Rule.—The pronouns *I, he, she, we, they* follow *to be* when *to be* is not preceded by a noun or a pronoun.

Note that in the following sentences “to be” is not preceded by a noun or pronoun.

Drill.

It was supposed to be *I* who made the error.

It was supposed to be *she* who called.

It was thought to be *he* to whom the speaker referred.

I should like to be *he*.

I should like to be *she*.

I should not like to be *she*.

How should you like to be *I*?

Should you like to be *we*?

I think that I should like to be *she*.

Do you think that you should like to be *he*?

Being.

General Rule.—A noun or pronoun after the verb *be* in the gerundial construction (*being*) is in the nominative case.

Special Rule.—The pronouns *I, he, she, we, they*, follow *being*.

Drill.

I had no thought of its being *he*.
 I had no thought of its being *she*.
 He had no thought of its being *I*.
 He had no thought of its being *she*.
 She had no thought of its being *I*.
 She had no thought of its being *he*.
 They had no thought of its being *we*.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "BE."

Subjunctive Mode.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I be,	If we be,
2. If you be,	If you be,
3. If he be,	If they be.

Note.—The forms "if thou be," "if thou wert," "if thou shouldst be," "if thou have been," are used only in poetry, in addressing the Deity, and in exceptional utterances, the plural form being used in the singular as well. Again, the present tense forms of the subjunctive mode are now rarely used, even by the best speakers, the indicative, "if I *am*," "you *are*," "if he *is*," etc., being used instead.

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I were,	If we were,
2. If you were,	If you were,
3. If he were,	If they were.

Future Tense.

1. If I should be,	If we should be,
2. If you should be,	If you should be,
3. If he should be,	If they should be.

Present Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------|
| 1. If I have been, | If we have been, |
| 2. If you have been. | If you have been, |
| 3. If he have been, | If they have been. |

Note.—The present perfect tense form, third person, singular number, is now rarely used, the indicative, "If he has been," being used, even by the best speakers and writers.

Past Perfect Tense.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. If I had been, | If we had been, |
| 2. If you had been, | If you had been, |
| 3. If he had been, | If they had been. |

Future Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. If I should have been, | If we should have been, |
| 2. If you should have been, | If you should have been, |
| 3. If he should have been, | If they should have been. |

Drill.

If I were *he*, I should go.

If you were *I*, should you go?

If he were *I*, he would not go.

If she were *I*, she would not go.

If she were *he*, she would do it.

If they were *we*, they would do the same thing.

If we were *they*, we should act differently.

If it had been *they* who invited me, I should not have gone.

If it had been *he* who called, I should have seen him.

If I had been *she*, I should not have left the room.

If you had been *I*, you would have acted the same way.

If he had been *she*, he would not have cared.

CASE OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUN BEFORE THE GERUND (VERBAL NOUN.)

My, Your, His, Our, Their.

Rule.—The possessive forms *my*, *your*, *his*, *our*, *their*, are used before the gerund, or verbal noun (noun formed from a verb and ending in *ing*).

Drill.

There is no use in *my* going. (Not *me*.)

There is no use in *your* going. (Not *you*.)

There is no use in *his* going. (Not *him*.)

There is no use in *our* going. (Not *us*.)

There is no use in *their* going. (Not *them*.)

I told her about *your* being invited to the wedding. (Not *you*.)

I cannot account for *my* being misled in the matter. (Not *me*.)

I am surprised at your keeping *your* position so long. (Not *you*.)

I am surprised at his keeping *his* position so long. (Not *him*.)

Have you any objection to *my* going? Not *me*.)

What is the use of *your* troubling yourself about the matter? (Not *you*.)

What is the use of *his* troubling himself about the matter? (Not *him*.)

The Infinitive and Its Forms.

The infinitive has two forms: the present and the perfect; as, *to love*; *to have loved*.

When the infinitive is transitive; that is, when it requires a receiver for its action, it has a passive as well as an active form for both the present and the perfect infinitive; thus:

active	} to love	passive	} to be loved
present		present	
active	} to have loved	passive	} to have been loved
perfect		perfect	

The Present Infinitive.

Rule 1.—When the infinitive refers to a time either *coincident* with or after that of the principal verb, the *present infinitive* is used; thus:

In the following examples the time of the infinitive is either *coincident* with, or after that of the principal verb.

1. I mean *to write*.

I intend *to go*.

I am happy *to meet* you.

2. I meant *to write*, not I meant *to have written*.

I intended *to go*, not I intended *to have gone*.

I hoped *to see* her, not I hoped *to have seen* her.

It was their duty *to tell* him, not It was their duty *to have told* him.

Note.—Instead of saying, “I should have liked *to have gone*,” or “I should like *to have gone*,” one should say, “I should have liked *to go*,” for

the liking or the desire to go would precede the *going*.

The Perfect Infinitive.

Rule 2.—When the infinitive refers to a time *prior* to that of the principal verb, the perfect infinitive is used; thus:

I am happy *to have met* you.

Many verbs in the infinitive mode have a passive as well as an active voice.

I was glad *to be remembered*.

I am glad *to have been remembered*.

Present Infinitive.

Drill.

I am pleased (happy, delighted) *to meet* you.

I am sorry *to be obliged* to go.

I mean *to write*.

I meant *to write*.

I hope *to go*.

I hoped *to go*.

I had hoped *to go*.

I expect *to go*.

I expected *to go*.

I had expected *to go*.

I intend *to go*.

I intended *to go*.

I had intended *to go*.

I should like *to go*.

I should have liked *to go*.

He was *to call* for me last week.

He was *to go* West before going abroad.

He was *to go* to the house before starting for town.

He was *to call* for her before going to the office.

He was *to have* the privilege of examining the goods before making the purchase.

He was *to go* to Paris before setting sail for the States.

He was *to see* his lawyer before making the contents of the letters known.

The present infinitive is always required after the past perfect tense.

I should have liked *to go* (not "I should like *to have gone*" nor "I should have liked *to have gone*").

I should have been delighted *to go* (not "I should be delighted *to have gone*" nor "I should have been delighted *to have gone*").

I should have liked *to stop* in Paris for a day or so before going to London.

I should have been glad *to go* to Italy before going to England.

I should have preferred *to see* her before she left the city.

I should have been glad *to see* her while she was at your house.

I should have disliked *to refuse* her had she asked me to accompany her.

I should have tried *to see* her had she been in town.

Rule 2.—When the infinitive refers to a time prior to that indicated by the principal verb, the perfect infinitive is required.

Perfect Infinitive.

Drill.

I am glad *to have met* her.

I am sorry *to have been obliged to go* before seeing her.

I regret not *to have seen* her.

I am disappointed not *to have seen* her while in New York.

I am sorry not *to have seen* him during my stay.

I am delighted *to have given* her this pleasure.

I regret not *to have seen* her yesterday.

The perfect infinitive is required after the past as well as after the present tense, if it denotes a time anterior to that in the principal clause.

The child was thought *to have wandered* away from home during the absence of his parents.

The money was supposed *to have been* taken during the absence of the manager.

The property was found *to have escaped* the damage caused elsewhere by the storm.

The story was proved *to have been started* at some time before his connection with the firm.

In the following sentences, the present infinitive is required, the tense of the verb in the subordinate clause not being anterior to that in the principal clause.

The story was proved *to be* false before the newspapers got hold of it.

The Infinitive with Was or Were to Be or To Have Been.

The infinitive with *was* or *were* forms a kind of compound tense; as, "There was less trouble than *was to be expected*;" "There were fewer defalcations than *were to be expected*."

Whether it is permissible to use a perfect infinitive with *was* or *were* is a question about

which authorities differ; some ruling that the perfect infinitive is correct in such sentences as, "The wedding *was to have taken* place before her parents' departure for Europe."

The Infinitive with Need and Dare.

Need, in the sense of that which is obligatory, is commonly and properly used in the third person singular without the terminal "s;" as: "He *need* not go;" "*Need* he go?" When used to express *want*, *needs* is *always* the required form; as, "He *needs* a new coat." *Dare* is also so used, as, "He *dare* not go," "*Dare* he go?"

The use of the preposition *to* after both *need* and *dare* is optional in many instances, but if employed, the terminal "s" is always required; as: "He *needs to* take warning," "He *dares to* go."

Need Must and Needs Must

When used adverbially, *needs*, not *need*, is required; as, "He *needs* must go," not "He *need* must go."

Concord of Auxiliary and Principal Verb.

The rule that governs the concord of auxiliary and principal verbs is as follows: When two or more auxiliary verbs are used with reference to one principal verb, the auxiliaries and the principal verb must be in concord; thus:

I *have been*, and I *shall* always *be*, delighted to see you whenever you come.

If the auxiliary and the principal verb cannot agree, a second principal verb must be in-

troduced; thus: "I *have regretted*, and I *shall* always *regret* that I did not go abroad with you;" not "I *have*, and *shall* always regret that I did not go abroad with you."

Sometimes the principal verb (understood) is incorrectly made to refer to an infinitive with which it is not in accord; thus: "I advise others *to take* the same course that I *have taken*;" not "I advise others *to take* the same course that I *have*."

In the following there is a lack of concord of tenses in the incorrect form: "I think that he *has seen* him, and did what I requested him to do." This should be, "I think that he *has seen him*, and *has done* what I requested him to do," or "I think that he *has seen* him and *that he did* what I requested him to do."

Concord of Verb with Antecedent of Relative Pronoun.

A verb that has for a subject a relative pronoun, is singular or plural according as the antecedent of the relative pronoun is singular or plural; thus: "This is one of the most interesting *books* that *have* appeared this year." The plural form *have* is correct, for the reason that the antecedent *books* of the relative pronoun *that* is plural.

In the sentence, "This is the only *one* of the books that *is* worth reading," it is the pronoun *one*, and not the noun *books*, that is the antecedent of the relative pronoun *that*.

When the relative pronoun has for its ante-

cedent a personal pronoun, caution is necessary in order that the verb may be of either the first, the second, or the third person, as required. In other words, the verb that has for its subject a relative pronoun must agree with the antecedent of that relative in person as well as in number; thus:

It is *I* who *am* in the wrong.

It is *you* who *are* in the wrong.

It is *he* (or *she*) who *is* in the wrong.

It is *we* (or *they*) who *are* in the wrong.

"It is *I*, your teacher, who *am* in the wrong."

In the last sentence, note that even if the appositional noun were regarded as the antecedent of the relative pronoun, the person and the number would be the same, because of the agreement of the appositional noun with its antecedent in both person and number.

Note.—In the case of compound antecedents, the verb agrees in person and number with the antecedent that immediately precedes the relative; thus:

It is either he or *I* that *am* to blame.

It is either he or your *friends* that *are* in the wrong.

It is either you or *I* that *am* to blame.

(When possible, the plural noun or pronoun should immediately precede the relative.)

Concord of Subject and Verb.

A verb is singular or plural according as its subject is singular or plural, for the meaning, and not the form of the subject, determines whether it shall be regarded as singular or plural.

As a rule, a compound subject is regarded as plural, and, hence, a plural verb is required; as, "My father and mother *are* there." There are cases, however, when the compound subject is regarded as singular, and, hence, a singular verb is required.

The following are the rules that apply in special cases:

Rule 1.—When the subject nouns are singular and refer to the same person or thing, the compound subject is regarded as singular, and the singular verb is used.

A laggard in love and a dastard in war

Was to wed the fair Ellen of brave Lochinvar.

Rule 2.—When the subject consists of a single noun modified by two adjectives so as to mean two distinct things, it is plural, and requires a plural verb.

The *old* and the *new* Testament *constitute* the Bible. (*Testament* must be regarded as understood after *old*.)

Rule 3.—When the subject nouns are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, the compound subject is singular.

Each girl and *each* boy (or each girl and boy) *was* requested to be present.

Every mother and *every* father (or every mother and father) *has* this feeling of responsibility.

No work and *no* money (or no work and money) *was* the possible fate that awaited him.

Rule 4.—When it is desired to make one of the subject nouns emphatic, the singular verb is required if the subject noun upon which the

emphasis is laid, is singular; otherwise the plural verb is required.

Not riches, but *honor*, *makes* the man.

Riches, not honor, *were* what he sought.

When the negative expression *and not* or *not* precedes a subject noun, the verb is always singular or plural according as the first subject noun is singular or plural; as, The *son*, and not the parents, is in the wrong. The *parents*, and not the son, are in the wrong.

When, in a compound subject, the part following a singular noun may be regarded as a parenthetical expression or afterthought, the singular verb is required; as, "Henry,—and Kate and Mary, too, likes candy."

Rule 5.—When in a compound subject, the subject nouns are separated by the predicate verb, the verb agrees with the first subject noun.

A heavenly *race demands* thy zeal, and an immortal crown.

The *leader* of the band *was* slain and all his men.

If the first noun is plural, the verb is plural; as, "The *leaders* of the band *were* slain, and all their men."

When the subject is separated from the verb, it is necessary to exercise caution, as the subject may appear plural when it is, in reality, *singular*; thus: A singular verb should always be used when a singular subject is separated from its verb by an adjective phrase introduced by the preposition *of*; as, "*Any one* of these rules *is* applicable."

Rule 6.—A singular verb should always be

used when a singular subject is modified by a phrase introduced by the preposition *with*.

This, *with several other causes* which I shall not name, *was* the occasion of his downfall.

Sometimes the preposition *with* is used when, in reality, the sense is plural, requiring instead the conjunction *and*.

Original.

The chief, *with all his attendants*, *was* captured.

Improved.

The chief *and* all his attendants *were* captured.

If, however, *with* is used, the verb should always be singular; but, as indicated, inasmuch as in these sentences the sense is plural, it is better to use the conjunction *and*, as the use of the preposition *with* should be restricted to a subject with a singular meaning; thus: "The house, *with its attractive surroundings*, *was* very easily disposed of;" "Poverty, *with its thousand ills*, *was* his lot."

Rule 7.—A singular verb should always be used when a singular subject is followed by *as well as*; that is, when *as well as* is correctly used.

He *as well as* you *is* to blame.

The boy *as well as* his sister *deserves* praise.

Sometimes the phrase *as well as* is used when, in reality, the sense requires the conjunction *and*.

Original.

The horse *as well as* the driver *was* killed.

Improved.

The horse *and* the driver *were* killed.

If, however, *as well as* is used, the verb should always be singular; but, as indicated, when *as*

well as is used in order to make an illustrative comparison, it is always correctly used; otherwise, the conjunction *and* is required. Thus, one correctly says: "His curiosity *as well as* his anxiety, *was* excited," or "His curiosity *and* his anxiety *were* excited," but not his curiosity *as well as* his anxiety *were* excited."

Rule 8.—When the real subject follows the verb, and the sentence is introduced by a word that is used, for the time being, in place of the subject, the singular verb is often used even when the real subject is plural.

"Thine *is* the kingdom and the *power* and the *glory*."

"There *was* *racing* and *chasing* on Cannobie Lea."

"Such *was* the *intelligence*, the *gravity*, and the *self-command* of Cromwell's warriors."

While usage varies in cases of a compound subject, where the first noun that follows the verb is singular, it is always incorrect to use the singular verb when the noun that follows it is plural. Thus, while the construction, "There *was* *racing*, and *chasing* on Cannobie Lea," is sanctioned by some grammarians on the ground of ellipsis, constructions like the following are always incorrect: "There *was* *reasons* why he could not go."

In the following examples the subject noun that follows the verb introduced by *there* is plural; hence, the verb should be plural:

Correct.

"On the table there *were* neatly and handily arranged two long *pipes*." (Not *was*.)

"There *exist* sometimes only in germ and potentiality, sometimes more or less developed, the same *tendencies* and *passions* that have made our fellow-citizens of other classes what they are." (Not *exists*.)

The following constructions would be regarded as incorrect by those grammarians who do not sanction the use of the singular verb, even when the first subject noun of the compound is singular:

There *was* about her the *brilliancy* of courts and palaces, the *enchantment* of a love-story, the *suffering* of a victim of despotic power.

Surely there *is* both *grandeur* and *eloquence* in his apostrophe to the atheists whom he knew abounded in Louis XIV's Court, etc.

The following constructions are regarded as correct by those grammarians who sanction the use of the singular verb with a compound subject, when the first subject noun is singular.

There *was* a hen and (*there were*) *chickens* in the court.

Upon this there *was* a fearful *cry* from heaven and (*there were*) great claps of *thunder*.
and Maxwell.

Rule 9.—When the compound subject is composed of phrases and clauses, the singular verb may be used, although some grammarians require the plural.

Compound Subject Composed of Phrases.

To know her and to love her *is* joy to me.

"To recover Silesia, to humble the dynasty of Hohenzollern to the dust *was* the great object of Maria Theresa's life."

Compound Subject Composed of Clauses.

That the train is late and that we are thus delayed, *is annoying*.

That he is ambitious and that he will succeed, *is evident*.

In constructions of this kind, a pronoun is sometimes introduced, as in the following sentences: "To be the leader of the human race in the career of improvement, to found on the ruins of ancient intellectual dynasties a more prosperous empire, to be revered by the latest generations as the most illustrious among the benefactors of mankind, all *this was* within Bacon's reach."

In this connection note that the use of the plural verb in constructions of this kind is not general; hence, it would seem preferable, in many instances, to use the singular verb. The following are correct:

To do our duty to the public and to be just to ourselves is a difficult task (or *are* difficult tasks).

That we should do our duty to the public and that we should be just to ourselves is a self-evident truth (or *are* self-evident truths).

Rule 10.—When the compound subject consists of two or more singular nouns or pronouns connected by the conjunctions "either . . . or" or "neither . . . nor," it is singular, and, hence, the verb is singular.

Either John *or* his father *is* going.

Neither John *nor* his father *is* going.

These conjunctions make the subject singular, for the reason that an assertion is made of only one of the subjects.

When the subjects differ in person, the verb agrees with the one that immediately precedes it.

Either he or I *am* going.

Neither he nor I *am* going.

When one of the subject nouns is plural, the plural verb is required, and the plural noun must immediately precede the verb.

Either James or his *sisters have* the book.

Neither James nor his *sisters have* the book.

In the case of pronouns, the same rule does not always obtain; thus, while the plural pronoun would immediately precede the verb in the sentence, "Either he or *they are* going," the singular pronoun would precede the verb in the sentence, "Either you or I *am* going," or "Either you or *he is* going." The reason for this is that precedence should be given to the position of *you*.

See *Concord of the relative pronoun and the verb*.

Rule 11.—When the noun is plural in form but singular in meaning, it takes a singular verb.

His whereabouts *is* unknown, or His whereabouts *has* not been discovered.

Note.—*Whereabouts* means simply *location*.

Five hundred dollars *was* the amount spent.

Note.—Five hundred dollars is thought of as an entity.

Some words have both a singular and a plural form; thus: *pair, dozen*. When preceded by a numeral, these words, whether singular or plural in meaning, take the singular form; but when not preceded by a numeral, they take the plural form.

Of is frequently omitted; thus, "a dozen eggs," instead of "a dozen *of* eggs;" "two dozen eggs," instead of "two dozen *of* eggs;" but not "there

are several dozen eggs," instead of "there are several dozens of eggs."

Singular in Form and Singular in Meaning.

This *is* a new *pair* of gloves.

There *is* a *dozen* of eggs in the basket.

Singular in Form and Plural in Meaning.

There *are* two *pair* of gloves in the box.

There *are* two *dozen* of eggs in the basket.

Plural in Form and Meaning.

There *are* several *pairs* of gloves in the box.

There *are* several *dozens* of eggs in the basket.

Other words that admit of a plural form when not preceded by a numeral are: *brace, braces; head, heads; score, scores; hundred, hundreds; etc.*; thus, "*two brace* of ducks," but "several *braces*," etc.

The following nouns, although plural in form, are regarded as singular, and so are followed by singular verbs: *amends, news, summons, gallows, politics, physics, optics, mathematics. Summons* has a plural form, *summonses*.

The following nouns may be used either in the singular or in the plural: *means, odds, pains, wages*.

Singular.

This *means* (or *these means*) *was* (or *were*) used to influence him.

No *pains is* (or *are*) taken to make it pleasant.

The *odds is* (or *are*) in his favor.

The *wages of sin is* death.

His *wages are* small.

Some nouns have the same form for both the singular and the plural; as, *deer, sheep, trout, salmon*.

Rule 12.—When the noun is plural in form and plural in meaning it takes a plural verb.

The following nouns are plural in both form and meaning and so are followed by plural verbs: *alms, archives, ashes, bellows, billiards, bitters, breeches, cattle, clothes, compasses, contents, goods, manners, matins, measles, morals, nuptials, nippers, pincers, pantaloons, riches, scissors, tidings, tongs, tweezers, trousers, shears, scales.*

Note.—*Contents* is plural in form and usually plural in meaning; as, “The *contents* of your letter *surprise* me.” Occasionally, however, where the context favors a singular construction, the singular verb is used; as, “The *contents* of the *jug* *is* vinegar.” *Tidings*, likewise, is construed as plural, but is occasionally found in literature in the singular. The present usage, however, is in favor of the plural; as, “*These tidings are alarming.*”

The Adverb.

Adverbs are classified as follows:

Adverbs of place; as, *where, whence, whither.*

Adverbs of time; as, *when, now, yesterday, by and by.*

Adverbs of number; as, *once, twice, first, secondly.*

Adverbs of manner; as, *well, aloud, rapidly, sweetly.*

Adverbs of degree; as, *very, too, almost, much, more.*

Adverbs of cause and effect; as, *therefore, wherefore, thus.*

Adverbs of assertion and denial; as, *yes, no, not*.

Adverbs, like adjectives, may be compared, thus; (1) by the use of *more* and *most*; (2) as, *eagerly, more eagerly, most eagerly*, by the use of *er* and *est*; as, *early, earlier, earliest*.

Some adverbs are compared irregularly; thus: *ill, worse, worst*.

Note.—Adverbs modify, or relate to, verbs, first as adjectives modify, or relate to, nouns.

Comparison of Adverbs.

Adverbs like adjectives, admit of comparison.

1. Many adverbs are compared by the use of *more* and *most*; thus:

Positive.	Comparative	Superlative.
eagerly	more eagerly	most eagerly
gladly	more gladly	most gladly
sorrowfully	more sorrowfully	most sorrowfully

2. Some adverbs are compared like adjectives by the use of *er* and *est*.

This is the case when the adverb may also be used as an adjective; thus:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
early	earlier	earliest
fast	faster	fastest
high	higher	highest
long	longer	longest
loud	louder	loudest
quick	quicker	quickest

Note.—In this connection, note that the adverb *soon* (*sooner, soonest*) is incorrectly used as an adjective, and that the adjective *slow* (*slower, slowest*) is correctly used as an adverb.

3. Some adverbs are compared irregularly; thus:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
ill	worse	worst
badly	worse	worst
well	better	best
late	later	latest
little	less	least
much	more	most

In connection with the adverb “well,” note that the adjective “good,” while compared in the same way, should never be used as an adverb; thus, “He writes *well*,” and not “He writes *good*,” is the correct form. Note that “ill” is both an adjective and an adverb, and that “illy” is always incorrect.

4. Some adverbs are incapable of comparison; thus: here, there, now, yesterday, therefore, however, etc.

Position of the Adverbial Modifier.

General Rule.—An adverbial modifier should be placed as near as possible to the word that it modifies.

Rule 1. An adverb that modifies an intransitive verb usually follows the verb; thus:

“The teacher spoke *harshly*.”

“The boy ran *fast*.”

Note.—A few adverbs of time generally precede the verb; as, “I *frequently* go East, but I

seldom stay more than a week at a time," and "I have *never* been abroad."

Rule 2. An adverb that modifies a transitive verb usually precedes it, in order not to come between the verb and its object. When, however, the sentence is short, the adverb frequently follows the verb; thus:

"He *willingly* gave her all the money that he had."

"She *gladly accompanied* him to the city."

"I have read the letter *carefully*."

"She uttered the words *slowly*."

Rule 3. When the tense of a transitive verb is compound, the adverb follows the first auxiliary if the verb is in the active voice, and immediately precedes the principal verb if the verb is in the passive voice; thus:

Active Voice.

"The boy has *always* obeyed his father."

"He will *certainly* have finished it before you arrive."

Passive Voice.

"The difficulty can be *easily* adjusted."

"The house can be *quickly* built."

Note.—When the object of a transitive verb is short, the adverb is sometimes placed after the object; as, "I studied my lessons *carefully*." Again, when the object is modified by a phrase or a clause, the adverbial modifier, if a phrase, is placed immediately after the verb; as. "He studied, *for several* hours, the lessons that I gave him."

Rule 4. When an adverb of time and an adverb of place modify the same verb, the adverb

of time is placed first, and that of manner or place, second, thus:

"I *usually* walk very *fast*."

"I *often* visit *here*."

Note.—When an adverb of place and one of manner are both used with an adverb of time, the adverb of time has precedence over that of place, and the adverb of place have precedence over that of manner; this is especially true of adverbial phrases, which are subject to the same rules as simple adverbs; thus: "He died *on November 1st, in New York, of pneumonia*."

Rule 5. Adverbial clauses of time, place, or manner usually precede both the subject and the verb. These are called *transposed* clauses; thus:

"*When I go to Europe*, I shall be gone a year."

"*In many places where we traveled*, we were unable to get drinking water."

Note.—When two or more phrases or clauses modify the same verb, one may be placed before, and one after the verb; thus: "*After several attempts*, he succeeded, *with great difficulty*, in quieting the audience."

Drill in the Position of Adverbs.

Recently.

"I have *recently* been noticing errors of this kind." (Active voice.)

"I have been *recently* appointed president." (Passive voice.)

"I have *recently* been to see her," or

"I have been to see her *recently*."

"I have *recently* been to see her on business."

"I have not been to see her *recently*."

("I have *recently* not been" is incorrect. "I have not *recently* been" may be used.)

"I *recently* saw her on Broadway."

"I *recently* purchased a gown at Mandel's.

"I purchased a gown *recently* at Mandel's."

"It could have been more easily remedied."

(*Remedied* is in passive voice. See rule given above.)

"You have *never* come to see me."

"Do you *ever* see her?"

"Will it *ever* be done?"

Only.

Rule.—*Only* must be placed as near as possible to the word, phrase or clause that it modifies.

"This can be sent *only* by express."

"I know *only* that he can not come."

"I *only* saw her; I did not speak to her."

"I saw *only* him. I did not see his sister."

"It was *officially* announced."

"It is *soon* to be established."

"He has *temporarily* deserted his post."

"Arrangements were *also* made at the time for his sister."

"They have *already* achieved great results."

Very Much and Very.

Specific Rule.—*Very* cannot directly modify a verb.

"I am *delighted* (or *very much delighted*) to meet you." (Not *very delighted*.)

"I am *pleased* (or *very much pleased*) to meet you." (Not *very pleased*.)

"I am *disappointed* (or *very much disap-*

pointed) that he cannot come." (Not *very disappointed*.)

"I am *distressed* (or *very much distressed*) at the sad news." (Not *very distressed*.)

"I shall be *obliged* (or *very much obliged*) to you if you will go." (Not *very obliged*.)

"He will be *pleased* (or *very much pleased*) to come. (Not *very pleased*.)

Concord of the Adverbs Ever and Never With the Verb.

Do not use *ever* or *never* with the simple past tense. The past tense is properly used to denote a specified time in the past, while *ever* and *never* consist of a period of time.

"As" As An Adverb.

As may be used as an adverb followed by *as* used as a conjunction. "I am *as* tall *as* you" (are tall).

The first *as* is an adverb; the second, a conjunction, connecting the subordinate clause, "You are tall," with the principal clause, "I am as tall."

In connection with the use of *as* in making comparisons, note that *as* is used when the comparison is equal; *so* when it is unequal. Thus: "I am *as* tall as you;" "She is not *so* tall as I."

"As" As a Conjunction.

Adverb As in the Comparison of Equals Followed by Conjunction As.

"You may depend upon it, there are *as* good hearts to serve men in palaces *as* in cottages."

"Had I read *as* much *as* others I might have been *as* ignorant."—*Hobbs*.

"Jesus Christ pours out a doctrine beautiful *as* the light, sublime *as* Heaven, and *as* true *as* God."

—*Theo. Parker.*

"Things that never happen are *as* much realities to us in their effect *as* those that are accomplished."—*Dickens.*

**Adverb So in the Comparison of Unequals,
Followed by Conjunction As.**

"Success in life is a matter not *so* much of talent or opportunity *as* of concentration and perseverance."

"There is nothing *so* strong or safe in any emergency of life *as* simple truth."—*Dickens.*

"The love of man in his maturer years is not *so* much a new emotion *as* a revival and concentration of all his departed affections for others."

—*Bulwer.*

In all the sentences given above, not that "*so*" is an adverb and that "*as*" is a conjunction.

"As" in Company with Other Words, Forming a Phrase Conjunction.

(a) The expression "*as soon as*," "*as long as*," "*as far as*," and the corresponding phrases, "*so soon as*," "*so long as*," "*so far as*," may be regarded as phrase conjunctions; that is, groups of words used as single conjunctions. Of course they are resolvable into the component parts of an adverb (*as* or *so*), an adjective or an adverb (*soon*, *long*, *far*), and a conjunction *as*.

(b) *As far as*, *as soon as*, *as long as* are usually interchangeable with *so far as*, *so soon as*, *so long as*; but if the extent or degree usually implied in these phrases is to be emphasized, however slightly, *so* is used preferably to *as*.

The following are the uses of these phrases:

Examples.

"We said of conduct that it is the simplest thing in the world *as far as* knowledge is concerned, but the hardest thing in the world *so far as* doing it is concerned."

"Therefore, we fulfill the law of our being *so far as* our being is æsthetic and intellectual, as well as *so far as* it is moral."

In the first sentence *as far as* is equivalent in meaning to the phrases "with respect to" or "in relation to;" in the second sentence, there is a distinct reference to and limitation of extent conveyed in the phrase, "*as far as*." In brief, when in place of the phrase "*as far as*" the phrase *with respect to* or *in relation to* can be substituted, "*as far as*" is correctly used; but when the extent or degree is to be emphasized, "*so far as*" is correctly used.

"In so far as" is often used in the sense of "so far as," but "in" is superfluous in this connection. Thus, in the sentence, "*In so far as* I am concerned you need not hesitate to refuse to go," *in* is redundant.

Further Examples.

Correct.

As far as he is concerned, it is of no consequence.

So far as we resist temptation, we gain strength of character.

As soon as he comes I will go.

So soon as one difficulty is surmounted, another arises.

I shall stay *as long as* I can.

So long as a person minds his own affairs, he will have no trouble with his neighbors.

Note.—As has been indicated, “so” may be substituted for “as” if the extent or degree is to be emphasized. In the sentences introduced by “so far as,” “so long as,” “so soon as,” “as” is often used instead of “so,” even by good speakers; but, as has been indicated, “so” is preferable when the extent or degree implied is to be emphasized.

“As” As a Conjunctive Adverb.

(a) *As* introducing a subordinate clause, in many constructions, is not only a conjunction but also an adverb; for this reason, in constructions of this kind, “as” is called a conjunctive adverb. Thus, in such sentences as, “I am as interested in my studies *as* I have always been,” the second “as” is not only a conjunction, connecting the subordinate clause with the principal, but also an adverb, modifying the verb in the subordinate clause in the same way that the first “as” modifies the verb in the principal clause.

Adverb Between the Sign of the Infinitive and the Verb.

(The Split Infinitive.)

The separation of *to*, the sign of the infinitive, from its verb, by an adverb, is almost universally censured by grammarians, *to* being regarded as a part of the verb itself, and, hence, not to be separated from it by the introduction of the adverb.

The history of the infinitive, however, shows that in no sense is *to* a part of the verb; nor is it, in all instances, essential to its meaning, for many verbs drop the preposition *to* when used with such verbs, as, *have, may, can, shall, will, do, dare*, etc.

The preposition *to* must be regarded, not as a part of the infinitive, but merely as the sign of the gerundial or infinitive nature of the verb.

The preposition *to* is not, nor has it ever been, incorporated into the verb itself; therefore, it can be readily seen that there is no essential reason why it should not be separated from its verb by the introduction of the adverb, especially when by this position the meaning is more clearly or emphatically expressed. In the language of Professor Lounsbury, "This practice, examples of which go as far back, certainly as the fifteenth century, has now become quite common. In spite of the opposition that it encounters, there is little question that it will establish itself permanently in the language."

In many constructions, greater force and perspicuity can be gained by placing the adverb before the sign of the infinitive; but, in other constructions, the meaning is more clearly expressed by inserting the adverb between the preposition and the infinitive. To illustrate, the construction, "*To really* know a person, one must know him intimately," more clearly expresses the meaning than does the form, "*Really* to know a person one must know him intimately;" or, "*To* know a person *really*, one must know him in-

timately." On the other hand, the construction, "It is a scene *never* to be forgotten," is more forceful than "It is a scene to *never* be forgotten." Thus we see that the rule given by grammarians: "*To*, the sign of the infinitive, should never be separated from its verb," should be modified by the clause, "unless the meaning can be more clearly expressed by the insertion of the adverb."

ERRORS IN THE USE OF ADVERBS.

So Required After No.

She had overcome many of Annie's prejudices about Europeans, and had proved to her that in no other country does the married woman hold as high a position and wield such influence as in France.—*Pierre de Coulvain* in American Nobility.

Note.—*Not so*, is the required form. (*So* is required after a negative.)

So Required After Not.

Americans are *not as* disinterested nowadays as they used to be. Application of the same rule.

So Required After Never; Incorrect Use of Adverb Never with Past Tense.

"Miss Villars is always frank," put in the Viscount de Nozay. "I *never heard as* many truths expressed as since I have had the honor of knowing her."

Note.—"I *have never heard* so many truths," is the correct form. (*So* is required after a negative.) The present perfect tense is required with *never*, for the reason that the sentence expanded expresses time perfected in the present; thus, "I have never heard so many truths expressed (as I have heard) since having the honor of knowing her." (Note that the past tense is required to express a specified time in the past; as, "I *heard him say yesterday* that he would come to-day.")

Incorrect Use of Adverb Always with Past Tense.

When she saw him talking to some one else, she *always wondered* what he was saying.

Note.—The construction should read: "*Whenever* she saw him talking to any one else, she wondered," etc. *When* denotes a specified time in the past; *always* carries time up to that designated by the context.

Misplacement of Only.

. . . The hospital, by necessity, may send a man home with one leg less; but it will not (in a creative rapture) send him home with one leg extra. Medical science is content with the normal human body and *only* seeks to restore it.—*Gilbert K. Chesterton*, in *What's Wrong With the World*.

Note.—"And seeks *only* to restore it," is the correct form, *only* properly being placed as near as possible to the word, phrase, or clause that it modifies. See THE CORRECT WORD: HOW TO USE IT, p. 124.

We talk of nothing but useful men and working institutions; that is, we *only* think of the chickens as things that will lay more eggs.—*Ibid.*

Note.—. . . that is, we think of the chickens *only* as things, etc. (Application of rule in the first excerpt.)

One can *only* find the middle distance between two points if the two points will stand still.—*Ibid.*

Note.—"One can find . . . *only* if the two points will stand still," is the correct form. (Application of rule in the first excerpt.)

Some one conquered; something occurred. You can *only* knock off the king's head once.—*Ibid.*

Note.—You can knock off the king's head *only* once. (Application of rule in the first excerpt.)

Whether or No.

Whether or *no* the living bird is at the beginning of our mental chain, it is absolutely neces-

sary that it should be at the end of our mental chain.—*Ibid.*

Note.—“Whether or not” is the preferred form.

Incorrect Use of Ever with Past Tense.

One day Terriss sent for me, and informed me that, since witnessing the production of *Arms and the Man*, he regarded me as one of the “greatest forces of the present day.” He proposed to combine my intellect with his knowledge of the stage in the construction of a play. Whereupon he gave me one of the most astounding scenarios *I ever encountered*.

Note.—“I ever encountered,” is incorrect. “I had ever encountered,” is the correct form, **ever** in constructions that include time up to the present, requiring the perfect tense form **have**, **has**, or **had**, as the case may require.

Ever So and Never So.

Ever, used as an adverb and followed by *so*, to mean *very*, *exceedingly* is correctly employed in such constructions as, “He is *ever so* rich.” *Ever* is recorded also as meaning *to whatever extent*; *to whatever degree*; for this reason, *ever so* is now commonly employed in the sense of *never so*, meaning also *to whatever extent*; *no matter how*. Some authorities indicate that *ever so* should not displace *never so* when extent or degree is implied, but other writers equally authoritative sanction this use, so that one may say, “Be he *ever so* rich, a man should not be idle;”

that is, to whatever extent a man may be rich, he should not be idle. *Never so* is virtually an idiom with an elliptical comparison understood, the real meaning being, *not ever* (never) so (rich, great, etc.) as in the supposed case. Because of this meaning, some authorities indicate that one should discriminate between the uses of *ever so* and *never so*, reserving *ever so* to express the emphatic *very* or *exceedingly*, and *never so*, the elliptical comparison, using *never*, not as an adverb of degree but as an adverb of time,—not ever so (rich, great) as in the supposed case; as, “If he run *never so* fast, he can not catch the train; that is, if he run so fast as he never before ran,” etc. This very nice distinction, however, is confusing and unnecessary. It is better to avoid the use of *never so*, and permit *ever so* to be used in its stead, construing it to mean *very*, or *exceedingly*, or *no matter how*, as the case may require.

The Preposition.

A preposition is a word that expresses the relation between the noun or pronoun which always follows it, and some preceding word, which may be a verb, an adjective, a noun or a pronoun.

(a) Many words that are used as prepositions, are used also as adverbs; but the distin-

guishing characteristic of the preposition is that it is always followed by either a noun or a pronoun (or the equivalent of a noun), which is in the objective case, while an adverb is not.

Ex.—“They went *aboard* the boat” (preposition). “They all went *aboard* (adverb). “She went *about* the house” (preposition). “She is able to be *about*” (adverb).

The following is a partial list of the most important prepositions: About, above, across, after, against, along, among or amongst, amid or amidst, at, behind, before, below, besides, between, beyond, for, in, into, near, of, off, on, over, around, through, toward, towards, to, up, upon, under, unto, without, within.

Case of Pronouns After the Prepositions. Drill.

This is between you and *me*.

This is between you and *him*.

This is between you and *her*.

This is between you and *them*.

This is between *him* and *her*.

This is between *her* and *him*.

This is for you and *me*.

This is for you and *her*.

This is for you and *him*.

This is for you and *them*.

This is for *him* and *her*.

This is for *her* and *him*.

This is for *him* and *them*.

This is for *her* and *them*.

This is from *him* and *her*.

This is from you and *me*.

This is from *him* and *them*.

There was no one at home except *him* and *me*.

There was no one at home but *him* and *me*.

Note.—In connection with the foregoing, note that the form of the noun, unlike the pronoun, is not affected by the objective case.

General Rule: Use the correct preposition.

Correct Use of At.

We are going to have company *at* dinner.
(Not for.)

Let us have company *at* dinner.

I often entertain company *at* dinner.

I like to have my relatives *at* dinner on Sunday.

Do you like to have company *at* dinner?

I am going to have my brother and his family *at* dinner on Sunday.

We are going to have turkey and cranberry sauce *for* dinner.

At and In.

(Use *at* for small places; *in* for large.)

I live *in* Chicago. (Large city.)

I live *at* Evanston. (Small city.)

I live *in* New York. (Large city.)

I live *at* Yonkers. (Small place.)

I live *in* Milwaukee. (Large place.)

I live *at* West Bend. (Small place.)

I live *in* St. Louis. (Large city.)

I live *in* Pittsburgh. (Large city.)

I live *at* McKeesport. (Small city.)

I live *at* Evansville. (Small place.)

I live *in* Boston. (Large city.)

I live *in* Philadelphia. (Large city.)

I live *at* Harrisburg. (Small city.)

I live *at* Cambridge. (Small place.)

I live *in* Cincinnati. (Large city.)

I live *at* Columbus. (Small city.)

Correct Use of Into.

Come *into* the house.

Come *into* my room.

Come *into* the office.

Come *into* my study room.

Come *into* the garden.

Go *into* the house.

Correct Use of In.

He lives *in* Regent street.

Note.—In London many of the streets and thoroughfares are so old that they are regarded as section of locality; hence, *in* is used in London, conveying as it does the idea of inclusion. In this country, the newspaper is rapidly establishing *in* for *on*. Many speakers, however, still cling to *on* as expressing the idea of relative position; thus:

Do you live *on* Michigan Avenue?

Does he live *on* Dearborn Avenue?

(Note.—*In* a street is coming into general use, and so must be sanctioned as correct.)

We used to live *on* (or *in*) Michigan Avenue.

A gentleman who lives *on* (or *in*) our street called on me yesterday.

On or *in* what street do you live?

Do you live *on* (or *in*) the same street as your friend does?

I do not live *on* (or *in*) the same street.

Correct Use of In.

He is always *in* time for his lesson.

I will surely be there *in* time (or promptly).

("On Time" is properly used as a Railroad phrase.)

The train is always *on* time.

The boat never leaves *on* time.

Correct Use of Off.

Cut a slice *off* the bread.

Cut a yard *off* that ribbon.

Take the dishes *off* the table.

Correct Use of On.

Put the meat *on* the plate.

Put the dishes *on* the table.

Sew the hooks *on* the belt.

At, *at all*, and *to*, superfluous.

Where is he? (Not where is he *at*?)

Beside and Besides.

Use *beside* when the meaning is at one's side;
use *besides* when the meaning is in addition to.

There was no one *at* home *besides* me.

Tell me who was there *besides* you.

I sat *beside* her. Will you sit *beside* me?

She was *beside* herself at the time.

(Did not know what she was doing.)

Correct Use of Of.

I shall go at twenty minutes *of* five.

We will come at fifteen minutes *of* six.

You will arrive at ten minutes *of* five.

It is now twenty minutes *of* seven.

Unless; Without.

Use *unless* as a conjunction; *without* as a preposition.

You cannot go down town *without* an umbrella.

You must not go down town *without* me.

You cannot go down town *unless* you take your umbrella.

The Conjunction.

Conjunctions are divided into two great classes: co-ordinate and subordinate.

Co-ordinate conjunctions are divided into four classes.

Copulative, denoting addition; as, *and, also, both, likewise, as well as, not only—but, partly, first, secondly, etc., further, moreover, now, well.*

Disjunctive, denoting choice or separation; as, *either, or, neither, nor, else, otherwise.*

Adversative, denoting opposition of meaning; as, *but, still, yet, notwithstanding, however.*

Illative, denoting effect or consequence; as, *therefore, wherefore, hence, whence, consequently, accordingly, thus, so, so that, so then.*

Subordinate conjunctions are divided into five classes:

Conjunctions of time, as, *as, while, until, before, ere, since, after, as soon as.*

Conjunctions of reason or cause; as *because, for, since, as, whereas, inasmuch as.*

Conjunctions of supposition or condition; as, *if, provided, supposing, unless, except, otherwise, though, notwithstanding, albeit, whether.*

Conjunctions of end or purpose, as, *that, in order that, lest.*

Conjunctions of comparison, *than, as.* The clauses introduced by *than* and *as* are often ellip-

tical; as, "He is taller *than* I" (am tall). "He is not so tall *as* I" (am tall).

Conjunctions often occur in pairs, and sometimes the first of a pair is used not to *connect*, but to *introduce*.

Though he were a giant yet I should fear him.

He is *neither* honest *nor* truthful.

He is *either* ill *or* tired.

The Conjunction and the Verb.

The study of the conjunction is especially important in its relation to the agreement of verbs with their subjects. [The subject is that of which something is affirmed; the verb is that of which affirms something of the subject.] General rule.—A verb is singular or plural according as its subject is singular or plural.

The conjunctions *and* (*both . . . and*), *but* (*but . . . also*), except in special cases, make the verb plural. The conjunctions *either* (*either . . . or*), *neither* (*neither . . . nor*) make the verb singular, unless one of the subjects is plural; thus:

John *and* I *are* going to the theatre. (Plural.)

Both John *and* Mary *are* going. (Plural.)

Either James *or* John *is* going. (Singular.)

Neither James *nor* John *is* going. (Singular.)

Either John *or* his sisters *are* going. (Plural.)

Neither John *nor* his sisters *are* going.
(Plural.)

Correlatives.

Conjunctions often occur correlatively in pairs; thus:

Both . . . And.

Both my sister *and* I are going.

Not Only . . . But Also.

Not *only* the children *but also* their parents are going.

NOTE.—When two words are used correlatively in this way, each member of the pair should immediately precede the *same* part of speech. Note that in the examples given above the correlatives immediately precede the same part of speech.

Position of Correlatives.

In the following excerpts, the position of the correlatives is incorrect.

Either . . . Or.

The Danish crews kept warily aboard their ships, ready *either* for fight *or* flight.

—Robert Ames Bennett in *The White Christ*.

(Should read "*either* for fight *or* for flight" or "*for either* fight *or* flight.")

Neither . . . Nor.

You may look for aid to the Beni Al Abbas; but count *neither on* Christian Gascon *nor* Christian Goth.—*Ibid*.

(Should read "*neither on* Christian Gascon *nor on* Christian Goth" or "*on neither* Christian *nor,*" etc.)

Either . . . Or.

If Christiane had been brought up in a convent, or amid very severe surroundings, with her refined and nervous temperament and her mind brimful of sentiment, she would have become *either a mystic or mentally unhinged*.

—Pierre de Coulvain in *American Nobility*.

The connected parts of a sentence should be

alike in construction. The sentence should read: "She would *either* have become a mystic *or* have become mentally unhinged."

Not Merely . . . But

A confession of lack of intelligence by Mr. Prentiss, signified *not merely* deliberate self-mortification, *but was offered* as a tribute to the mental quality of his visitor.

—*Robert Grant* in the Undercurrent.

(Should read "*not merely* signified . . . *but was offered*," etc.)

Not Only . . . But Also.

His little trip to Keyport as acting escort to Mrs. Leroy had *not only* opened his eyes to a class of workingmen of whose existence he had never dreamed, *but* it had *also* furnished him with a new and inexhaustible topic of conversation.—*F. Hopkinson Smith* in Caleb West.

(Should read "*not only* had opened . . . *but* had *also* furnished," etc.)

At the Horn house, on great occasions, the guests would *not only* crowd the steps, *but* all the hall.—*Scribner's*.

(Should read "would crowd *not only* the steps *but* all the hall as well.")

Not Only . . . But.

"I must tell you too," said Guy, "that your wife behaved admirably. The Duchess asked her to go and see her. She *not only* went, *but* she spent the last night with her."

—*Pierre de Coulvain* in American Nobility.

(Should read "She *not only* went *but* spent the last night with her.")

Like and As.

Rule.—Use *like* as an adverb or an adjective;
as, as a conjunction.

NOTE.—*Like* is followed by a noun or a pronoun with a preposition understood; as, "He is *like* (unto) me." *As* is followed by a noun or a pronoun (expressed or understood) and a verb (expressed or understood). *Like* is also construed as a preposition the same as *near* in the sentence, "He lives *near* us."

Like.

Her eyes are *like* stars. (Her eyes are like *unto* stars.)

The children are *like* their mother. (The children are like *unto* their mother.)

As.

He walks *as* I do. (Not *like* I do.)

He works *as* I do. (Not *like* I do.)

Whether . . . Or: How to Use Them.

Whether is used to introduce the first of two (or more) alternatives, the second alternative being introduced by *or*.

The Omission of Or.

Whether may be used to introduce a single alternative, the second alternative, introduced by *or*, being implied; as, "I do not know *whether* I shall go."

Note that the words *or not* are understood. Note also that one may say either: "I do not know *whether* I can go;" "I do not know *whether* I can go *or not*;" "I do not know *whether* *or not* I can go." The third form, however, does not seem to be so commonly employed as do the first and the second.

Whether should not be repeated unless there is introduced another alternative distinct from the one already implied; for, inasmuch as *whether* is employed to indicate a choice of things, it is superfluous to repeat it before the second alternative (expressed or understood).

Note also in this connection that many speakers use the conjunction *if* instead of *whether*. Thus: "I do not know *if* I can go." Inasmuch as *if* is used specifically to introduce a suppositional clause, as, "I shall not go *if* it rains," its use to introduce an alternative clause is censured by many critics. See *If* and *Whether*.

Incorrect.

I do not know *whether* I shall go to New York **or** *whether* I shall remain in Chicago.

Correct.

I do not know *whether* I shall go to New York or remain in Chicago.

In the following sentences, the repetition of *whether* is correct, for the reason that there are two distinct alternatives. Thus:

Correct.

I do not know *whether* I shall go to New York or stay in Chicago, or *whether*, if I decide to go to New York, my employer will be willing to have me go.

Whether or No.

The expression "whether or no" in such constructions as, "I do not know *whether* he will come or *no*," is censured by many critics.

The Interjection.

The interjection is a word used to express emotion or feeling.

Hurrah! Here comes the train.

Interjections have no grammatical relation to the other words of a sentence.

The following words are used as interjections; Oh! ah! lo! fie! how! why! see! stop! alas! help! well! hurrah! hark! hem! hist! hush! behold! hey! indeed! there! shame! begone! look-out! beware! welcome! nonsense! dear me! good-bye! farewell! heigh-ho!

Capitalization

Rules for the use of capitals.

1. Use a capital for the first word of every sentence: *I* shall be at home on Wednesday. *Can* you call in the afternoon?

2. Use a capital for the first word of every line of poetry unless the initial word and the immediate words that follow it, simply continue the thought expressed by the preceding line:

There were three men that spoke of the
dead.

The strong man fights, but the sick man
dies.

"*And* would be that he were here with us now,"
they said;

The sun in our face, and the wind in our
eyes.—*Kipling*.

3. Use a capital for every proper noun and every proper adjective. This includes the names of the months and of the days of the week. The names of the seasons are capitalized only when personified: John, Mary, James, Bacon, Aristotle (proper nouns); Baconian, Aristotlian (proper adjectives); January, February; Monday, Tuesday; spring, summer, autumn, winter (not personified); "Hail, *Spring!* Thou art come at last (personified).

In connection with proper adjectives, when the word has lost its original reference, the capital is no longer required; thus: *herculean* (from Hercules), *platonian* (from Plato), are written with small letters.

4. Use a capital for every name or title of the Deity, or for the personal pronoun that is equivalent to the name of the Deity: It is *God* the *Father* who rules the world, and it is to *Him* that we owe all things.

Usage varies somewhat in the capitalization of pronouns referring to the Deity, but when used as in the foregoing sentence, the capital is always correct.

5. Use capitals for *I* and *O*: *O* Mary! *I* wish that you would come.

(a). *Oh* is capitalized only when it begins a sentence; as, "*Oh!* You have found my knife; but *oh!* you have cut your hand with it."

In connection with the interjection *oh*, note the following points:

(b). *Oh* is used to express emotion, and is followed by an exclamation point unless the emotion runs through the entire expression. *O* is used in direct address, and is not immediately followed by an exclamation point. Thus, we write: "*Oh!* I did not hear you," "*Oh*, how delightful!" "*O* Mary! How delightful!"

6. Use capitals to begin the important words in the title of a book or in the subject of any other composition: I have just finished reading *Romola* by George Eliot.

Note.—Headings of essays and chapters should

be in capitals; as, Chapter I, Article 11, Letter Writing and Punctuation.

When the titles of books and essays are quoted, the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs should begin with capitals, while the prepositions and conjunctions should begin with small letters. The article (*the, a, an*) begins with a capital only when it is used as the initial word in the title.

Locke's "Essay on the Human Understanding."

I will lend you my book, "How to Enjoy Pictures."

His essay was entitled, "How to Speak and Write Correctly."

I have just finished reading "The Game," by Jack London. (*The* is capitalized.)

I saw the article in the New York Sun. (*The* is not capitalized.)

7. Use capitals for the names of the points of compass when they denote sections of country; when they denote mere direction, use small letters.

We are going to visit friends in the *East* (section of country).

I have never traveled farther *south* (direction) than Chicago, but I have made the acquaintance of some very charming *Southerners* here in the North.

I like the *North* as well as the *South*. I shall go *South* next winter.

8. Use capitals for words that denote an important event in history.

The *Civil War* lasted four years. The *Battle of Lexington* marks the beginning of the *Revolutionary War*.

9. Use a capital for every personified noun.

If I choose *Evil* for my companion, *Charity* must henceforth be a stranger to me.

10. Use a capital for every religious denomination.

The *Christian Church* is growing rapidly.

11. Use a capital to begin every direct quotation. The first word of an indirect quotation should begin with a small letter unless it requires a capital by the operation of some other rule.

She quoted, "*Self-conquest* is a true victory."
(Direct Quotation.)

He said *that* he would come. (Indirect Quotation.)

In constructions where the quotation is closely united with other words in the same grammatical relation, capitals are not required; as, "Now and then we see a face upon which the 'dove of peace' sits brooding."

12. Use a capital to begin an important statement or to ask a question.

"Resolved, *That* in order to succeed, we must persevere."

"I wish to make this statement: *If* we do not persevere, we shall not succeed."

"The question is, *Shall* we succeed if we persevere?"

13. Use capitals for the chief items in an enumeration of particulars.

The bill is as follows:

For Composition\$60.00

For Paper 90.00

For Presswork 47.00

The chief items in a statement begin with capital letters as in a bill.

Please deliver to us the following goods:

5 bbls. Granulated sugar

1 case Early June peas

1 bu. Potatoes

2 sacks Java coffee

2 boxes Ivory soap

The words indicating the amount ordered (bbls., case, bu., etc.) are not capitalized. In connection with the use of a comma after each enumeration, and of the period at the close, note that they are usually omitted in business usage.

14. Use a capital for a geographical name when used with another word to form a proper name. The *Red River*; The *Green Mountains*; *Cook County*.

In an enumeration, when cardinal numbers are used, the first word in each of the series begins with a capital letter. When the numbers are in parentheses, the capitals are frequently omitted. Usage, however, is variable in constructions of this kind.

"Reading serves, 1. To form the mind; 2. To delight the imagination; 3. To perfect the character," or "Reading serves (1) to form the mind, (2) to delight the imagination, and (3) to perfect the character."

15. Use a capital for all titles of office and honor.

President Wilson, Queen Wilhelmina, King Edward, Rev. J. H. Brown, Dr. White.

When titles of this kind are not used in connection with the names, small letters are used. Thus: "The speaker referred to the *presidents* of the United States," etc. Sometimes in specific cases, however, small letters are frequently used where capitals might be expected. Thus: "They spoke sadly of the *king's* illness." As a rule, however, when it is desirable to make the title take the place of the person's name, the title should begin with a capital letter; as, "The *President* will address the members;" "The *Professor* will give a lecture on this subject." "The *King* of England is ill." In other words, where the titles are used in the place of proper nouns, they may be capitalized.

16. Use capitals for the titles in a salutation.

My dear *Father*; My dear *Mother*; Dear *Cousin Jane*; Dear *Sister Julia*; My dear *Sister*; Dear *Brother John*.

The rule applies equally to written conversation; thus: "Where are you going, *Mother*?" "What did you say, *Cousin Emma*?"

When the title is used merely to express relationship, it is not capitalized. Thus, in the conclusion of a letter one writes: "Your sincere *friend*;" "Your affectionate *brother*;" so in conversation, "I told my *mother* that I should not go;" "I am younger than my *brother*." When, however, the word expressing the relationship is used in place of the name, it should be capitalized, as "I told *Father* that I should not go."

17. Use capitals when referring to particular books.

Note that *page* when abbreviated is frequently begun with a small letter, and is followed only by a period.

Except when referring to the book itself, some writers use small letters throughout; as, See "Correct English," book ii, chap. iii, p. 115.

The Bible and special names referring to it are capitalized; thus "The Holy Bible;" "The Old and the New Testament;" "The Scriptures." When the Bible is referred to merely as a book, it is not capitalized; as, "Many *bibles* were sold last year."

Exercise.

Use capitals in the following sentences according to the foregoing rules:

who is the happy warrior? who is he?
 that every man should wish to be?
 it is the generous spirit who, when brought
 among the tasks of real life, hath wrought
 upon the plan that pleased his boyish thought.
 whose high endeavors are inward light
 that makes the path before him always bright;
 who with a natural instinct to discern
 what knowledge can perform is diligent to learn;
 abides by this resolve and stops not there,
 but makes his moral being his prime care.

Wordsworth.

i shall spend my vacation in the east.

the bill is as follows:

for printing\$100.00

for plating 25.00

for paper 90.00

we are going to st. louis to attend the lutheran conference.

it is god the father who rules the world.

o father, is it i?

it was on tuesday, january 2d.

the story of mrs. wiggs of the cabbage patch is very interesting.

his honor the lord mayor of london invites you.

we are going north this summer.

the battle of lexington marks the beginning of the revolutionary war.

if we succeed, happiness shall reign supreme.

the christian church is growing rapidly.

he said, "let us have peace." (Direct quotation.) he said that he wished we might have peace. (Indirect quotation.)

GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES: HOW TO CAPITALIZE THEM.

Geographical names are capitalized when used specifically to form proper names; but when used generally, they are not capitalized.

The *Red River*; The *Susquehanna river*; The *rivers* of Asia; The *Green Mountains*; The *Rocky Mountains*; The *mountains* of Colorado; *Michigan City*; *New York City*.

(a) *River* forms a part of the proper name "Red River," but it is not necessarily a part of the name "Susquehanna," for example; in the first construction, *the word river cannot be omitted*, while in the second, it can be omitted; thus: "The Red" would not make sense, whereas, a

river especially when large, may be referred to as "The Susquehanna," "The Missouri," etc.

(b) "*Mountain*" is usually capitalized, as the proper name can hardly be regarded as complete without the use of the descriptive name; thus, while we may refer to the *Rockies*, we can not say "The Rocky." In the proper name, "The Green Mountains," both words are necessary to express the meaning.

(c) *City* is capitalized in "Michigan City," as it is a part of the name. While some writers would not capitalize *city* in "New York City," the word should be capitalized, for the reason that it is used, for the time being, as a part of the name in order to distinguish the name of the city from that of the state.

Geographical Names Used Specifically.

(Both names are required to form the proper name.)

The Pacific Coast

The Red Sea*

The Red River

Michigan City

Cook County

Dobbs Ferry

Long Island Sound

The Great Lakes

Lake Michigan

Geographical Names Used Generally.

The western coast of England

*We may refer to "The Mediterranean," but not to "The Red"; hence, *sea* is a part of the name in the *Red Sea*, and, in consequence, should be capitalized.

The Mediterranean sea
The Hudson river
The city of Chicago
The village of Wilmette
The town of Lake

Lake Michigan is one of a chain of lakes.

(d) Some authorities would use small letters in such names as, "Grover's *Lane*," York *Place*," "Davis *Street*," "Cook *County*"; but, these variations from the rule confuse the writer who wishes to adopt a uniform style of capitalization; in consequence, it would seem better to employ capitals in each instance, for the reason that the name is not complete until both words are used.

(e) Again, when one of the names is not restrictive in its use, the name that follows it should be capitalized; thus: "The Pacific" means the *Pacific Ocean*; "The Mississippi" means "*The Mississippi river*"; hence in the name, "The Pacific Coast," "The Mississippi Valley," the words *coast* and *valley* should be capitalized, for the reason that they are required to complete the meaning.

—(f) Usage varies as to the capitalization of *river*, *ocean*, *mountain*, for the reason that two rules are in opposition to each other. Rule 1 requires the capital, because the name is used specifically, while Rule 2 requires small letters, because the omission of the descriptive name does not affect the meaning.

(g) Because of the non-restrictive use of such words as *state*, *territory*, *government*, these words are capitalized in such constructions as,

"The State of Illinois," or "Illinois is a State;" "The Territory of Alaska," or "Alaska is a Territory;" "The French Government" or "The Government of France." *State* and *government* are also capitalized when used in place of the proper names; as "The State has made a new law;" "The Government has decided to enlarge its navy." (Note that *state*, *territory*, and *government*, have other uses; thus: "state" may mean *condition*; "territory," *a tract of land*; "government," *control*.)

(h) In the following constructions, the words in italics should not be capitalized:

The *tropic* of Cancer; the *tropic* of Capricorn; the *arctic* and the *antarctic circle*; the *polar circle*; the *equator*; the *torrid zone*; the *north* and the *south temperate zone*; the *eastern* and the *western hemisphere*; the *northern* and the *southern hemisphere*.

The foregoing constructions are used merely to indicate geographical lines of position, and not real places; hence, they need not be capitalized.

(i) *Valley* and *Stream* should be capitalized in the expressions, "The Mississippi Valley," "The Gulf Stream," because used specifically. *The Great Basin*, meaning *the Cordilleran region*, is capitalized; but *basin* in the "Kongo basin" is not capitalized.

Punctuation

The following are the chief marks of punctuation:

1. The Comma (,)
2. The Semicolon (;)
3. The Colon (:)
4. The Period (.)
5. The Interrogation Point..... (?)
6. The Exclamation Point..... (!)
7. The Dash (—)
8. Parenthesis and the Bracket... (()) ([])
9. Quotation Marks..... (“ ”)
10. The Apostrophe (’)
11. The Hyphen (-)

The *comma*, the *semicolon* and the *colon* will be treated, respectively, in relation to their use after the logical, or complete subject and in co-ordinate and subordinate clauses.

The Complete Subject.

Rule.—The *complete* subject when long is separated from the predicate by a comma.

By the *complete subject* is meant the grammatical subject and its modifiers. The grammatical subject is the noun (or its equivalent) that is the subject of the verb in the predicate.

(a) The complete subject may be a noun accompanied by a prepositional modifier.

“*The fact of the teacher’s having overlooked the fault, made the pupils,*” etc.

When the prepositional modifier is short, no comma is required; as, "Every one of the children is going."

(b) The complete subject may be a noun or pronoun modified by a relative clause.

"Those who have finished by making all others think with them, have usually been those who began by daring to think for themselves."

(c) The complete subject may be a noun clause.

"That the work of forming and perfecting the character is difficult, is generally allowed."

When the noun clause is short, no comma is required unless the last word is a verb; thus: *"That he is in the wrong* is evident;" *"That he suffered,* was evident."

(d) The complete subject may be a noun accompanied by a participial phrase that amplifies its meaning.

"He, having failed several times, gave up the contest."

When the participial phrase restricts the meaning of the noun, it is not set off from the subject by a comma; as, *"The King depending on the support of his subjects,* cannot go to war."

Note that if the participial phrase can be turned into a restrictive relative clause, it should not be preceded by a comma; thus: "The king *depending,*" etc., is virtually equivalent to "the king that *depends,*" etc. When the participial phrase precedes the subject it is set off by a comma; thus: "*Depending on his subjects,* the King," etc.

(e) When the complete subject consists of three or more subject nouns, a comma follows each.

Poetry, music, painting, are fine arts.

The air, the earth, and the water, teem with life.

When the conjunction *and* occurs only between the last two words in a series, the comma is placed before it, unless the connection in thought between the last two words is closer than between the last word and the preceding words; in the latter case the comma is omitted before *and*; thus: in the sentence, "The air, the earth, and the water, teem with life," the comma is required before *and*. In the sentence "John, James, Mary and her sisters are going," the comma is omitted, for the reason that the connection is closer between *sisters* and *Mary* than it is between *sisters* and the preceding words.

Again, in constructions where the comma is properly omitted before *and*, the comma may be placed immediately before the verb; while in other constructions, it may be omitted. Some authorities, however, indicate that the comma should always be placed after the last word, if that word is a subject noun.

(f) When the complete subject consists of but two subject nouns, not connected by a conjunction, a comma is placed only after the first noun.

Poetry, music are fine arts.

(g) When the complete subject consists of

but two subject nouns connected by the conjunction *and*, no comma is required.

My sister and brother are here.

(h) When two or more nouns are connected by the conjunction *or*, they are not separated by a comma unless the second noun is explanatory of the first.

"Shall we fish in the river or the stream?"

"The river, or stream, was full of trout."

In the first sentence the stream is not the river, but in the second sentence the comma after *river* indicates that the stream is another name for the river.

Note.—In connection with the first sentence, note that the article *the* is repeated, for the reason that the reference is to a different thing.

(i) When the complete subject consists of three subject nouns connected by *and*, the comma may or may not be used; as "The good, and the true, and the beautiful, are to found in all grades of life," or, "The good and the true and the beautiful are to be found in all grades of life."

(j) When the complete subject consists of nouns connected by a conjunction and following in successive pairs, a comma is required after each pair.

"Interest and ambition, honor and shame, friendship and enmity, all influence men."

The rules that apply to the punctuation of nouns in a series, apply also to the other parts of speech; as, "David was a *brave*, *wise*, and *pious* prince" (adjectives). "Happy is the child who *obeys*, *loves*, and *honors* his parents" (verbs). "You should seek after knowledge

steadily, patiently, and perseveringly" (adverbs).

Exercise.

Punctuate the following where required:

The fact of his having been born blind **was** greatly in his favor.

Each of them must do his own work.

Those who would excel in any of the fine arts or useful mechanisms of this great age must pay the price of eternal vigilance.

That the work of training the unused mind to study is arduous none will deny.

The only effective method of inducing him to surrender that consideration for others which common courtesy demanded was to advise him of their necessity.

He who willingly surrenders his own comfort and conveniences for the benefit of others is usually the one who has himself experienced the lack thereof.

That he suffered was evident.

The actor having temporarily created the character assumed by him was generously applauded.

Architecture painting predominate in the scheme of the building.

There is pleasure and rapture and society in the pathless woods.

Men of talent men of business men of ordinary occupations touch life upon few sides.

That mental training is good for the old and the young is evident.

That he did well is evident.

The fact that I have not had time to do the

The contented man who generally has a clear
be treated respectively in relation to their use
ordinate and subordinate clauses.

work is the cause of the delay.

Faith Hope and Charity are the guiding spirits
of our lives.

The man having failed several times was de-
clared bankrupt.

Education Love rule the world.

Poetry and music delight the soul.

Greed and ambition power and influence en-
mity and distrust were the motives that guided
his actions.

Beauty grace and symmetry are combined in
that statue.

Music dancing are his pastimes.

The black the red and the gray. The black
and the red and the gray.

CO-ORDINATE CLAUSES.

Rule.—Co-ordinate clauses when closely related
in meaning, are separated by commas; but, if
they are not closely related in meaning, and
are themselves separated by commas, semicolons
are required. Again, when the connection be-
tween the clauses is so remote that a period could
be used, a colon is often employed instead.

“The poet lives at Amesbury, near the beautiful
Merrimac that he loved in his youth, and there
he will remain until he dies.” (Co-ordinate
clauses are separated by a comma.)

In this connection, note that co-ordinate clauses
may contain subordinate clause, “that he loved in

his youth;" the second, the subordinate clause, "until he dies."

"Having detained you so long already, I shall not trespass longer upon your patience; but, before concluding, I wish you to observe this truth." (Co-ordinate clauses are separated by a semicolon.)

"The discourse consisted of two parts: in the first was shown the necessity of exercise; in the second, the advantage that would result from it." (The first co-ordinate clause is separated from the others by a colon.)

Note that wherever there is an ellipsis, a comma is required after *second*, because the verb is omitted.

Exercise 1.

Point out the co-ordinate conjunctions in the following letter, and insert commas between the co-ordinate clauses. (See CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.)

My dear Mrs. Baker:

I know that you will be surprised to hear that I have been traveling in Europe and that while there I saw a great many things of interest. I rode in the "penny tube" under the Thames but did not like the idea of being "squirted through a pipe," as it were. At Westminster Abbey, I saw the sepulchers of the illustrious dead that lie there and I read the epitaphs to their memory, with considerable interest. During my stay, I visited the Tower of London and I also went to the Bank of England. Nelson's statue is a fine one but I prefer Cleopatra's needle, or I should

say the obelisk, as we call it in New York. It was delightful to ride through Hyde Park but I assure you that my visit to the House of Parliament was instructive as well as pleasant. Some of the streets of London are very dirty and I was not favorably impressed by them nor was I interested in the White Chapel district where such atrocities have been committed.

The departure from London was exciting and I can still hear the shrill pipe of the boatswain ordering the people to go ashore. I can hear the creak of the hawsers straining against the cleats I can see the throng of friends waving farewells and I can feel the vessel as it moves slowing into the stream, and we are on our way home.

Shall I tell you how we arrived at New York or shall I wait until I see you again?

With best wishes, believe me,

Your sincere friend,

JACK.

Exercise 2.

Insert semicolons where required :

The far-vaulted heavens, so bountiful of light, were an illimitable weightless curtain of pale-blue velvet the rolling clouds were of white velvet the grass, the stems of bending wild flowers, the drooping sprays of woodland foliage, were so many forms of emerald velvet the gnarled trunks of the trees were gray and brown velvet the wings and breasts of birds, flitting hither and thither, were of gold and scarlet velvet the butterflies were stemless, floating velvet blossoms.

THE ADJECTIVE MODIFIER.

When the first of two adjectives modifies the noun only, it is set off by a comma. When it modifies both the noun and the second adjective, it is not set off by a comma. Thus, "A dark brown dress;" "Many beautiful, fragrant flowers were in the garden."

In the following sentences commas are not required between the adjectives:

A moment later, he heard her flit down the corridor, and heard Asshlin open the *heavy outer* door.

Imperceptibly the confusing ideas of the evening became pleasantly indistinct—the *numberless contradictory* feelings blurred into one delightful sensation of indifference and repose.—*Ibid.*

In the following sentences commas are required:

He lay awake considerably longer than was his wont in the *uncomfortable, canopied* bed, etc.

The *salt, moist air* borne to him through the open window, and the *great, untiring* lullaby of the ocean, etc.

For adjective modifiers that require the use of the hyphen, see THE HYPHEN.

Exercise.

Insert commas wherever required:

The sea itself was undisturbed. It lay as it might have lain on the first day of completed creation—mystical sublime untouched.

Both girls looked pleasantly in keeping with the fresh morning—their rich youthful coloring having nothing to fear from the searching light.

But, nevertheless, she blushed and threw a look of appreciation and affection at her loyal little partisan.

He found himself straining his eyes towards the two slight figures moving towards him, etc.

His first sensation upon waking the next morning was one of pleasure—the placid unquestioning satisfaction that comes to the untroubled mind with the advent of a fine day.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES INTRODUCED BY RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Adjective clauses introduced by relative pronouns are of two kinds: *restrictive and non-restrictive*.

1. A *restrictive* clause is one that defines or limits its antecedent; as, "Bring me the books that lie on the table."

"That lie on the table" is a restrictive clause because it defines or limits the antecedent "book" by excluding all books with the exception of those which lie on the table.

2. A *non-restrictive* clause is one that introduces a new fact relative to the antecedent; as, "Bring me the books, which you will find on the table."

In the first sentence, the construction is restrictive because *that* defines or limits "book" in the same way that the definite article *the* limits or defines a noun. In the second sentence, the construction is non-restrictive, because another fact is added in the same way that the conjunction "and" adds a fact. Thus: "Bring

me the books *that* (the books) are lying on the table." "Bring me the books, *which* (and the books) you will find on the table."

After indefinite pronouns, modern English prefers *who* even when the sense is restrictive; thus: "There are many (other, several, those) *who* can testify."

Although "that" is a restrictive relative pronoun, it is not always used when the sense is restrictive, the relatives *who* or *which* being used instead. Grammarians indicate that, as a rule, when the sense is restrictive, "that" should be used, unless the personal sense is dominant, when *who* is frequently used; thus: "The men *who* have risked their lives should be rewarded, emphasizes more than does "The men *that*," etc., the personal element.

"Although present usage is perhaps tending in the direction of such a distinction, it neither has been nor is a rule of English speech, nor is it likely to become one, especially on account of the impossibility of setting 'that' after a preposition; for to turn all relative clauses into the form, 'the house that Jack lived in,' would be intolerable."

RULES FOR PUNCTUATION OF RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE CLAUSES.

1. A relative clause that is restrictive is not separated by a comma, from its antecedent.

I will give the money to the man *that brought the trunk*. (Restrictive.)

2. A relative clause that is non-restrictive is separated by a comma from its antecedent.

I will give the money to the man, *who will bring the trunk*. (Non-restrictive.)

In the first sentence, *who* might be used instead of *that*, and, if the comma were omitted, the meaning would be the same. In the second sentence, if *that* were used instead of *who* and if the comma were omitted, the meaning would be changed.

It can easily be seen that "I will give the money to the man *that* will bring the trunk," means that the money is to be paid only to the man that brings the trunk; while "I will give the money to the man, *who* will bring the trunk," means the money will be paid to the man, and he will bring the trunk.

He *that is his own lawyer* is said to have a fool for a client.

Those inhabitants *who had favored the insurrection*, expected sack and massacre.

Those members of the House of Commons *who had been expelled by the army*, returned to their seats.

Any one *who refuses to earn an honest livelihood* is not a subject for charity.

He disliked all the members of the family *who disagreed with him*.

In the last construction if *who* were non-restrictive, the comma would be required and the sentence would then mean, "He disliked all the members of the family and they disagreed with him."

Models of Non-Restrictive Clauses.

John, *who is studious*, will improve.

His stories, *which made everybody laugh*, were often made to order.

At five in the morning of the seventh, Grey, *who had wandered from his friends*, was too weak for a public occasion.

The letter was delivered to the messenger, *who waited at the door*.

The dog dropped the bone, *which then fell into the water*.

I went to view the river, *which I found greatly swollen*.

The doctor visited the patient, *whom he found very ill*.

Sometimes restrictive clauses are apparently separated from the antecedent when, in reality, the commas are introduced, not for the purpose of separating the restrictive clause, but to observe some other rule of punctuation. Thus, in the sentence, "There were present *laborers, mechanics, and merchants who* doubted the argument she offered," the commas are required according to the rule that says: "Three or more words, having the same grammatical relation to other parts of the sentence, must be set off by commas." In this sentence, a comma is required after the last noun, for the reason that if it were omitted, the meaning would be, that only the merchants doubted, instead of the laborers and mechanics as well.

Occasionally, the restrictive relative pronoun is separated from its antecedent, as in the sentence, "He lives most wisely, *who employs his time most usefully*." Strictly speaking, however,

the sentence should read, "He *who employs his time most usefully*, lives most wisely," the rule being that restrictive clauses should be placed as near as possible to their antecedents. If, however, for the sake of euphony, or for some other reason, the separation takes place, the comma is required.

Again, when the restrictive relative pronoun is followed by an expression set off by commas, it is often preceded by a comma; as, "The soldier, *who, without fear, offers his life for his country*, deserves the admiration of his fellows."

The distinguishing characteristic of a non-restrictive clause is its separation, by the comma, from the antecedent; for, inasmuch as the pronoun "that" is not always used when the sense is restrictive, it is therefore, the presence or the absence of the comma that determines whether the construction is restrictive or non-restrictive.

Standard gives the following:

"Avoid the society of men that are selfish and cruel," means of such men as are selfish and cruel." "Avoid the society of men who are selfish and cruel," has the same meaning, but "Avoid the society of men, who are selfish and cruel," can mean only that men of a class are selfish and cruel and should be shunned.

Exercise.

In the following letter underscore all the restrictive clauses once; the non-restrictive clauses twice.

Caution.—Do not mistake the noun clauses (introduced by the conjunction *that*) for relative

clauses. (See noun clauses and adjective clauses, p 84.)

Dear Mrs. Baker:

Having a few spare minutes, I shall employ them in writing to you. These cold days make one think of winter clothing. My aunt, who returned from Philadelphia yesterday, says that the fall and winter goods, which are beautiful, are being displayed on the counters and in the show windows, and that white shoes, which have been so fashionable this summer, are still seen, but look somewhat out of place. She says that one of the colors *that* will predominate this fall in the dress-goods line, is plum. I received a letter from my cousin in Williamsport, in which she says that her friend who is to be married next month, will wear a plum-colored traveling dress and that her friend who is to be married in November, will wear a dark red suit. I should prefer the first-named color, should you not?

Jack Frost, who is always welcomed by the sufferers from hay-fever, was at work here last night. Some of Mother's flowers which were uncovered, show signs of his presence. I hope that you enjoy the fall season as much as I. It is my favorite, for the air is so bracing. I have already begun my walks into the country. Those which I take in the fall are the most enjoyable of all the year. I regret that you cannot be here to accompany me on some of them. I am sure that you would enjoy the beautiful foliage which decks the trees on the hills and in the valleys of Chester County.

Hoping to hear from you soon, with best wishes, I remain,

Very sincerely yours,

MARY BLANK.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES INTRODUCED BY CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

Adjective clauses introduced by conjunctive adverbs are governed by the same rules as adjective clauses introduced by relative pronouns; thus: in the sentence, "I do not know the time *when I shall start*," the adjective clause introduced by *when* is restrictive; and, hence, is not set off by a comma; in the sentence, "I shall call on him next Monday, *when he will be at liberty to see me*," the adjective clause introduced by *when* is non-restrictive.

Further Examples.

The reason *why I hesitate*, is because I am unacquainted with the facts. (Restrictive.)

The house *where I was born* has been recently destroyed by fire. (Restrictive.)

Several years ago, he went to New York, *where he has since lived*. (Non-restrictive.)

The doors will be open from ten till twelve, *when they will be closed for the rest of the day*. (Non-restrictive.)

Review Exercise.

Write five sentences in which the adjective clauses are restrictive and are introduced by the relative pronoun *that*; five sentences in which the restrictive clauses are introduced by the conjunctive adverbs *when*, *where*, and *why*.

Write five sentences in which the non-restrictive

tive clauses are introduced by the relative pronouns *who* and *which*; five sentences in which the non-restrictive clauses are introduced by the conjunctive adverbs *when* and *where*.

THE ADVERBIAL MODIFIER.

Rule.—An adverb that is placed at the beginning of a sentence, and that does not modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, is set off by a comma; when it is an intervening element, it is set off by commas.

However, it is not necessary to decide the question now. (Adverb modifies the entire clause.)

However necessary it may be to decide the question now, I shall defer giving a decision until tomorrow. (Adverb modifies the adjective *necessary*.)

It is not necessary, *however*, to decide the matter now. (Adverb modifies the entire clause.)

The following adverbs are logically followed or set off by commas, although many good writers omit them. In consequence, both styles conform to good usage.

Again, other considerations besides these may affect his decision.

Besides, I have frequently told him that I should not consent to his going.

However, this question need not be decided to-day.

First, let us consider the main question.

Secondly, there is no good reason why you should refuse to assist him.

Finally, there is no other resource.

Hence, the question to be decided is this.

Therefore, there is no reason for this delay.

Moreover, this is not a convenient time for our meeting.

Nay, you deceive yourself.

Now, as to the second question, I have no further remarks to make.

Indeed, it is a very critical moment.

Thus, one trouble followed another.

Note.—In important or extended statements, *thus* is preceded by a semicolon and followed by colon.

Consequently, you must go.

Nevertheless, she does not need it.

Note.—Some adverbial phrases are followed by comma. Again, good writers frequently omit them. "On the contrary," "at this day," "beyond dispute," "at least," "for the most part," "now and then," "not long since," "week after week," "day after day," "apart from this."

Exercise 1.

Underscore all the adverbial modifiers in the following:

First, I need study.

Secondly, I want to study.

Therefore, I should study.

Consequently, I must study.

Indeed, I want to be compelled to study hard.

Hence, I beg that you will keep me in lessons.

You need not, however, inconvenience yourself to accommodate me.

Nevertheless, if you could send, at least, two lessons a week, I shall be greatly pleased.

Finally, do that if you find it possible, *i. e.*, send two lessons each week.

Exercise 2.

Punctuate the following:

Moreover the statements were untrue.

Nevertheless I shall talk the matter over with him again.

However the matter should receive attention.

Again many of the peasants in Spain for the purpose of securing food and shelter are surrendering themselves to the authorities saying that they have committed crimes.

However the matter is as you know an important one.

In the first place it is not necessary to give this explanation.

On the contrary he remained at home.

Not long since he called on his employer and told him all the facts.

Week after week day after day he sat at the bedside of the sick child.

The sources of all kinds of sensibility are the same. Consequently where sensibility to sorrow is denied there *also* the keenest relish of joy is withheld.

The feeling of beauty is *unquestionably* associated with the conception of the objects themselves. Thus the delight which constitutes its by commas, as, for example: "In the first place." it seemed to him that the worst bitterness of life punishment. There are *however* degrees of ~~his~~ offense as well as of every other. To calumniate a man of honor is *doubtless* deserving of no slight

chastisement but the defamer of a good woman is *indeed* a being so despicable as only to be described by the foulness of his pen.

INTERVENING ADVERBS, ADVERBIAL PHRASES, AND CLAUSES.

An adverbial modifier, placed between the subject and the verb, or between the parts of the predicate, is set off by commas.

(a) The modifier may be a word.

Nothing, *however*, could mend this defect of Mrs. Leyburn's.

(b) The modifier may be a phrase.

"The squire's manners, *no doubt*, were notorious, but even so, *his reception*," etc.

Two phrases, placed between the subject and the verb, are set off by commas.

"And yet the man's instincts, *at this period of his life, at any rate*, were happily kind and affectionate."

(c) The modifier may be a clause.

Rose's gowns were legion. . . . She was accustomed, *as she boldly avowed*, to shut herself up at the beginning of each season of the year for two days' mediation on the subject.

Punctuate all the intervening phrases and clauses in the following:

The radical change *however* had been the work, not of Mr. Thornburgh, but of his predecessor, etc.

And Catherine *moreover* had paid her a short visit earlier in September.

Robert *therefore* had visited during the preceding week, etc.

Her sister *on the other hand* was guiltless of the smallest trace of fashion.

The moment of his quarrel with his father had *in fact* represented a moment of comparative success, which he never recovered.

Robert *as soon as he found that radical measures were for the time hopeless*, had applied himself with redoubled energy to making the people use such palliatives as were within their reach, etc.

Robert, *meanwhile, during the first few minutes in which Mr. Wynustacy had been engaged in some family talk with Mrs. Darcy*, had been allowing himself a little deliberate study of Mr. Wendover across what seemed the safe distance of a long table.—*Mrs. Humphry Ward* in *Robert Elsmere*.

TRANSPOSED ADVERBIAL PHRASES AND CLAUSES.

Adverbial Phrases.

Rule.—An adverbial phrase preceding the subject and the verb, is logically set off by a comma, but the latest usage favors the omission of the comma.

On the eighth day of that memorable night, Romola was standing on the brink of the Mediterranean, etc.—*George Eliot* in *Romola*.

When two phrases precede the subject and the verb, each phrase is set off by a comma.

Little more than a week after, on the seventh day of April, the great Piazza della Signora presented a stranger spectacle even than the famous Bonfire of Vanities.—*Ibid*.

Adverbial Clauses.

Rule.—An adverbial clause preceding the subject and the verb is properly set off by a comma, although the usage is not observed by some writers.

Before any one else could speak, there came the expected announcement that the prisoners were about to leave the council chamber, etc.

In the following sentence, both the phrase and the clause precede the subject and the verb, and hence are set off by commas.

In these very moments, when Savonarola was kneeling in audible prayer, he had ceased to hear the words on his lips.

When two clauses precede the subject and the verb, each clause is set off by a comma.

As the soft warmth penetrated Romola's young limbs, as her eyes rested on this sequestered luxuriance, it seemed that the agitating past had glided away like that dark scene in Bargello, and that the afternoon dreams of her girlhood had really come back to her.

Several clauses preceding the subject and the verb, when not closely connected, are set off by semicolons, and the last clause is followed by a comma.

When Savonarola felt himself dragged and pushed along in the midst of that hooting multitude; when lanterns were lifted to show him deriding faces; when he felt himself spit upon, smitten and kicked with grossest words of insult, it seemed to him that the worst bitterness of life was past.

Exercise.

Punctuate all the transposed phrases and clauses in the following:

With the sinking of high human trust the dignity of life sinks too.

Besides that there were three large bodies of armed men.

When they had arrived within the court of the Bargello Romola was allowed to approach Barnardo with his confessor, etc.

As Tito looked around him during the appeal there was a change in some of his audience very much like the change, etc.

Since the question of burning was becoming practical it was not every one who would rashly commit himself to any general view of the relation between faith and fire.

As Tito took the letter Savonarola stood in suppressed excitement that forbade further speech.

**RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE
ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.**

Restrictive clauses introduced by the conjunctive adverbs "when," "while," "as," etc., are not set off by commas; but when these clauses add new facts, they are set off by commas.

In the following sentences the sense is restrictive, and hence, the clauses are not set off by commas:

"But he had not risen *when we set out*, nor would the ill-natured landlord reveal his name."

"I sighed as *I remembered the sun and the flowers and the blue Chesapeake*, and recalled

the very toss of her head *when she said she would marry nothing less than a duke.*"

In the following sentences, a new fact is added in each case, and hence, the clauses are set off by commas:

"I was taken aboard in a slaver and carried down to the Caribbean seas, *when I soon discovered that the captain and his crew were nothing less than pirates.*"

The clause "when I soon discovered," etc., is equivalent to "and then I soon discovered," etc.

"And he was about to rebuke me hotly, *when I told him* that I had come from Maryland, where I was born."

The clause "where I was born" is an adjective clause and is equivalent to "at which place I was born," or "*and at that place I was born.*"

Exercise.

Punctuate all the adverbial clauses where required, in the following:

"What cheer, Richard?" cried the captain *when* I returned.

"Near St. Clemens Danes I was packed in a crowd for ten minutes *while two of these fellows formed a ring and fought for the right of way,*" etc.

"You believe me, Captain," I said, overcome by the man's faith; "you believe me *when I tell you that one,*" etc.

"You should have seen her face *when he came back to say that you had been for three weeks in a Castle Yard sponging-house!* Perhaps, in truth, a sentiment had sprung up in her breast

when she heard of my disappearance, which she mistook for love."

He regarded her keenly *as* she entered, etc.

I was not therefore, wholly taken by surprise *when he said*, etc.

"The captain, who had been quite overwhelmed by this sudden arrival of a real lord to our rescue at the very moment *when we*," etc.

Our eyes were wet *when we reached the lower hall*, etc.

And presently we arrived at his parlor *where supper was set for us*.

I would that I might give you some notion of the great artery of London in those days, for it has changed much since I went down it that heavy morning in April, 1770, fighting my way. Ay, fighting my way, for the street then was no place for the weak and timid *when bullocks ran through it in droves*, on the way to market *when it was often jammed from wall to wall with wagons and carmen and truckmen*, etc.—*Winston Churchill* in *Richard Carvel*.

Letter exemplifying rules for the punctuation of adverbial modifiers:

Dear Mrs. Baker:

Since my lesson involves the writing of a letter, I shall do as I did before, *i. e.*, write to you; chiefly because, *when I write to an imaginary person*, I have no inspiration; and then, you know, it wrenches one to strike at nothing. But *when I write to you*, I can always find something to say that is of interest; at least, to me.

Since this letter must deal with clauses intro-

duced by the conjunctive adverbs when, while, as, etc., I shall endeavor to use as many such clauses as I possibly can without twisting their grammatical necks too much, or without breaking their rhetorical backs; but, really, I fear that I shall be compelled to upset their compositional dignity. For as I sit here and try to conjure them up, I remind myself of the crooked man who walked a crooked mile with a crooked stick, etc., because I am obliged to wiggle and twist into all kinds of literary contortions in order to get those particular words and clauses where I can use them. There! I wiggled that one in while I was telling you of my difficulty. Well, well! I've caught another, and if I am not careful you will not believe me when I tell you how difficult a thing it is for a literary fledgling to turn a rhetorical somersault and light gracefully on his feet, when he least expects it.

Awaiting my next lesson papers, I am

Very truly yours,

J. H. A.

THE PERIOD.

The following rules govern the uses of the period:

1. Use a period after every complete declarative or imperative sentence.

He dictated several letters to his stenographer.

Do not delay one moment.

2. Use a period after every abbreviation.

(a) After abbreviated words and initials; as
Jas. B. Blank.

(b) After Roman numerals; as King George III., Chap. XVI.

Note.—Some writers omit the period.

Periods are not required after ordinary numerals unless used in enumeration of particulars; as in the following:

The subject is treated under three heads:

1. The history of the tariff;
2. The present condition of the tariff system;
3. Features that are capable of improvement.

(c) After letters used to indicate titles; as, James Blank, M.D.

When letters are doubled to indicate the plural of titles, only one period is used; as, James Blank, LL.D.

The same rule obtains in the use of other abbreviations of plural words, as pp. for pages, bbl. for barrel.

Caution.—Nicknames such as Will, Fred, etc., do not require the period.

1st, 2d, 3d, etc., are not abbreviations, and hence, no period should be used.

(d) Periods are no longer used after titles and headings. They are frequently used after subheads, although the tendency now is to omit them.

The Interrogation Point

Rule—An interrogation point should be placed after every direct question.

A direct question is one that can be answered; an indirect question one that cannot be answered.

“Why do you not go?” (Direct.)

“He asked why you did not go.” (Indirect.)

Rules for the Use of Capitals in the Interrogative Sentence

1. When in a series of consecutive questions, each question is distinct in itself, each should begin with a capital letter.

Do you study hard? Do you wish to succeed? Do you think that you are doing all that is possible?

2. When the sentence is not complete until the end of the sentence is reached, only one interrogation point should be used, and only the initial word should begin with a capital.

When shall I call, in the morning or in the evening?

What dress shall I wear, my black or white one?

Which is the better, this or that?

Note that according to this rule the interrogation point is correctly placed in the following sentence:

Which of the two following sentences is correct: "He said that he is going," or "He said that he was going"?

3. When several questions in a series have a common dependence, only one interrogation point need be used, and that should be placed at the end of the series; furthermore, only the initial word should begin with a capital.

"Whither now are fled those dreams of greatness; those busy, bustling days; those gay-spent, festive nights; those veering thoughts, lost between good and ill, that shared thy life?"

Some authorities regard the following as correct:

"What is the meaning of all this excitement? of all this tumult? of all this confusion?"

Note that the first word of each phrase does not begin with a capital.

The Exclamation Point

General Rule—An exclamation point should be placed after a sentence that expresses strong feeling.

"Hurrah! Hurrah! It's the Fourth of July!"

Special Rules

1. The exclamation point is placed after interjections that show strong emotion.

"Magnificent! Glorious!" was his exclamation.

Good! I am delighted to hear it.

Look! Here comes the train.

2. When the emotion continues throughout the expression, the exclamation point is frequently placed at the close, even when the interjection is used at the beginning of the sentence.

Charge, Chester, charge! On, Stanley, on!

Shame upon your conduct!

3. The exclamation point is used after phrases and clauses that are used like interjections.

What noble institutions! What a comprehensive policy! What wise equalization of every political advantage!

How sad is his loss!

4. Two exclamation points are often used to express irony, contempt or great surprise.

His honor!! He has none.

5. The exclamation point is sometimes used instead of the interrogation point to express doubt.

He is an honest (!) man.

The Use of Capitals With the Exclamation Point

Rule.—The first word after an exclamation point is not capitalized unless the relation between it and the word that precedes the exclamation point, is remote.

Alas! cried he. (Words are closely related in thought.)

Hurrah! Hurrah! A victory! (Words are not so closely related in thought, each expression being complete in itself.)

Exclamatory-Interrogative Sentences

When a sentence is both exclamatory and interrogative that point should be used which is demanded by the construction. Thus, if the construction partakes more especially of the nature of an exclamation, the exclamation point should be used; as, "Oh, where can rest be found!"

If, however, the sentence requires an answer, the exclamation point can be placed immediately after the interjection, and the interrogation point can be placed at the close of the sentence; as, "Oh! where has he gone?"

Stop! Will you take this message?

Listen! What was that?

Hush! Did you hear him call?

Alas! what reason has he to hope for success?

Wait! Will you not listen to me?

Hark! Did you hear the train?

Look! is that he?

Oh! aren't you happy?

Oh! why did you go?

“O” and “Oh.”

O is used in direct address; as, “*O* Mary! How delightful!” *Oh* is used to express emotion; as, “*Oh!* why did you do it?”

Rule.—*O* is not immediately followed by an exclamation point, but *oh* is so followed except where the emotion runs through the whole expression; in which case, *oh* is followed by a comma, and the entire emotional expression, by an exclamation point.

O home, magical, all powerful home!

O Absalom! O God! O my child!

Oh, how glad I am!

Oh! Where did you find it?

Exercise.

Insert the exclamation point where required.

How still it was At first she started at every sound, etc.

Isabel Isabel Isabel.

Wait you are tired, and you have lost your temper from thirst, etc.

Ah, you have never had a brother—my brother so you cannot understand.

Oh, come now you mustn't talk that way, or I'll have to give you more of the antidote.

“Good-by” she murmured against his face,
“good-by good-by good-by”

THE DASH.

The dash is used chiefly to indicate a sudden change in the sense or the construction of a sentence.

Note.—The dash should not be used as a substitute for the comma, the semicolon, the colon, etc. The use of the dash is permissible only when these marks cannot be correctly used.

“No. He came to himself after you had left him—he is alive. No—listen to me—yes, dear, he is alive and not much hurt. The wound was a scratch, and he was only stunned—he is well—to-morrow he will be as well as ever—ah, dear, I told you so!”—*Marion Crawford* in the Palace of the King.

(a) The dash is sometimes used to indicate an unexpected turn in a sentence.

He had no fears—except for his safety.

(b) The dash is sometimes used in the place of commas, to denote expressive pauses.

The boat sank—then rose—then sank again.

(c) The dash is used to indicate an omission, as of a date, or letters from a name.

It was in the year 19—.

It was at the home of Mr. B—.

See Chap. 1-5 (meaning 1, 2, 3, 4, 5).

(d) The dash is used in dialogues, when separate paragraphs are not used.

“Good morning, Mr. Blank.”—“Good morning, Mrs. Blank.”

(e) The dash is used after a side-head, and at the close of a paragraph.

Rule.—

O Absolom! O God! O my child!

The imagination is the retina of the universe.

—*Ruskin.*

(f) The dash is often used in a summing up.

Literature, art, music,—all minister to the wants of the soul.

(g) The dash is sometimes used to indicate an ellipsis of the words *as*, *namely*, etc.

Nouns are divided into two great classes—Proper and Common.

(h) The dash is frequently used before repeated words or expressions.

“I wish—I wish,” he said, “that she were here.”

A comma is sometimes used before the first dash, especially if it would be required if the words included within the dashes were omitted. Many writers omit the comma. If words included within the dashes require a point, the mark is placed before the second dash.

And this friendship,—this friend that has been yours since childhood,—would you lose it?

Her face—was there ever face so fair?—became suffused with a rosy tinge.

THE PUNCTUATION OF THE PARENTHESIS.

Marks of parenthesis are used to separate expressions that have no vital connection with the rest of the sentence.

Special Rule for Punctuation of Matter Within the Parenthesis.

Rule.—The words within a parenthesis are punctuated the same as in an independent con-

struction, with the exception of the last word, which is subject to special rules. (See rule below.)

In the following sentences, the construction within the parenthesis requires no marks of punctuation.

The doctrine of the immortality of the soul was taught explicitly (at least as explicitly as could be expected of an ancient philosopher) by Socrates.

And sometimes (but then I was a child) I have wept for hours at a time.

In the following sentences, marks of punctuation are required within the parenthesis:

We are all of us (who can deny it?) partial to our own failings.

I wish to ask the gentleman from Ohio a question which he may not wish to answer in this place (hear, hear).

The article appeared in the Century Magazine (October, 1920, p. 150).

Special Rules for Punctuation of the Last Word Before the Parenthesis.

Rule.—When the word preceding the marks of parenthesis requires a punctuation mark, the mark is placed after the parenthesis if the last word within the parenthesis is not punctuated; otherwise, the punctuation mark is placed before the parenthesis.

In the following sentences, the last word within the parenthesis is not punctuated; hence, the punctuation mark is placed after the parenthesis.

Pride in some disguise or other (often a secret to the proud man himself), is the most ordinary spring of action among men.

In the following sentence, the last word within the parenthesis is punctuated; hence the comma should precede the parenthesis:

While the Christian desires the approbation of his fellow men, (and why should he not desire it?) he disdains to receive their good will by dishonorable means.

When the parenthesis is used merely to inclose a numeral or a letter as in an enumeration of particulars, the subject matter outside the parenthesis is punctuated independently; thus: "Reading serves (1) to improve the mind, (2) to delight the imagination, (3) to perfect the character."

The Independent Parenthesis.

When the parenthesis is independent of the context, a period is placed after the matter within the parenthesis, and also after the word that precedes it.

Mr. Speaker, the gentleman from Nevada says that the English language is to extend to every land under the sun. But Alaska can hardly be considered as lying under the sun. (Laughter.)

An interrogation point is often placed within a parenthesis to express doubt. Thus:

In the time of Homer, 850 (?) B. C., Rome was yet unthought of.

BRACKETS.

Brackets [] are used to inclose some word

or words that are not in the original discourse.

And he concluded by saying, "Let us understand these subjects." [Grammar and Rhetoric.]

Brackets are used in dialogues to inclose instructions.

John.—[Aside] Where have you been?

Brackets are used for matter inserted within a parenthesis.

He made the statement (the same statement that had been made by his predecessor [Mr. White]), that he would, under no circumstances, accept the nomination.

Brackets are used in reports of speeches to indicate approval, disapproval, the names of the persons referred to, and the like.

Mr. President, I have already spoken an hour, shall I proceed? [Cries of "Go on."]

THE APOSTROPHE.

The apostrophe is used to indicate the omission of letters or figures.

He *doesn't* (instead of *does not*). *I'm* (instead of *I am*). *It's* (instead of *it is*).

6's and 7's (instead of *6es* and *7es*).

King's, *queen's* (instead of the old form *kingis*, *queenis*) to denote possession.

There is a general tendency to omit the apostrophe in the titles employed by business firms and corporations; thus: "The Studebaker Bros. Manufacturing Company," instead of "The Studebaker Bros.' Manufacturing Company."

'05 (instead of 1905).

Dot your *i's*.

Note.—The apostrophe is not used when the

figures or the letters are written in full; thus: "There are four threes in this line;" "There are two thousand ems in this page."

THE QUOTATION.

Rules for the use of quotation marks.

1. A direct quotation is inclosed in quotation marks.

John said, "I will come."

2. An indirect quotation is not inclosed in quotation marks.

John said that he would come.

A direct quotation is one in which the exact words of the person quoted are given.

An indirect quotation is one in which the exact words of the person are not given, the idea alone being expressed.

3. When the name of the author is given at the close of the quotation, the quotation marks are unnecessary.

Her eyes are homes of silent prayer.—*Tennyson*.

4. When the name of the author precedes the quotation, the marks are used thus:

It was Macauley who said, "A page digested is better than a book hurriedly read."

5. Words and phrases used for illustration are often inclosed in quotation marks; more frequently in italics.

The words "shall" and "will" are often misused.

About is sometimes used as an adverb and sometimes as a preposition.

6. When referring to titles of books, maga-

zines, and papers, quotation marks are used, unless the titles are written in italics.

"Harper's Monthly;" "The Fortnightly Review," or *Harper's Monthly; The Fortnightly Review.*

A Quotation Within a Quotation.

7. When a quotation is inclosed within another, the included quotation is inclosed by the single quotation marks, and the quotation proper is inclosed by the usual marks.

He said: "A would-be agreeable took his seat between the brilliant Madame de Stael and the reigning beauty of the day. 'How happy I am,' he said, 'to be thus seated between wit and beauty.' 'Yes,' replied Madame de Stael, 'and without possessing either.'"

8. If a quotation included within another quotation contains another quotation, the latter is inclosed by double quotation marks.

He read aloud the following: "He said, 'I get a great deal of comfort from the biblical quotation, "Blessed are the pure in heart."'"

Note.—The number of marks at the close of the subject matter quoted, must represent in number all the marks used.

Quotation Marks With Other Marks of Punctuation.

General Rule.—When a quotation is made, the quotation marks are placed outside the other marks of punctuation, except in the case of the interrogation and the exclamation points, which are subject to special rules.

Bacon said, "Knowledge is power." (Quotation marks are placed outside the period.)

"'We can overcome the difficulty,' said the speaker," etc. (Quotation marks are placed outside the comma.)

Note that *etc.* is not placed within the quotation marks.

Many writers place the quotation marks within the semicolon, but this usage is not consistent with the rule. The following style should be observed:

The correct forms are: "It is he;" "It is she;" "It is I."

Rules for the Marks That Precede the Quotation.

When a quotation is preceded by introductory words that are closely connected in thought, it is preceded by a comma.

He said, "I am not certain of this."

(a) When a quotation is formally introduced, it is preceded by a colon.

These were Longfellow's words: "Life is real," etc.

(b) When a formal quotation is lengthy or begins a new paragraph, it is frequently preceded by a colon and a dash.

Distinguish between the following sentences:—

He said that he would come.

He said, "I will come."

(c) When a quotation or an illustration is introduced by *as*, or *namely*, a semicolon should be placed before *as* or *namely*, and a comma after it.

Shall in the first person expresses simple futurity; as, "I shall go to town in the morning."

Rule for Parenthetical, or Explanatory Words Within a Quotation.

When parenthetical, or explanatory words are inserted within a quotation, they are set off by commas.

"I do not care," he said, "about what others may think."

Rule for the Use of the Interrogation Point With Quotation Marks.

If the interrogation point refers only to the words quoted, it must be placed within the quotation marks; but if it refers to the rest of the construction, it must be placed outside the quotation marks.

He said, "Do you like to study?"

Did he say, "Do you like to study"?

Rule for the Use of Quotation Marks With the Exclamation Point.

If the exclamation point refers only to the words quoted it must be placed within the quotation marks; but if it refers to the rest of the construction, it must be placed outside the quotation marks.

He said, "How calm is the night!"

How beautiful is Walt Whitman's poem, "When Lilacs Last in the Dooryard Bloomed"!

Rules for the Use of Quotation Marks With the Dash.

When the dash is used to denote that a quotation is not complete or that a sudden break has been made, the quotation marks follow the dash.

"If you pass through the season without being drawn into a declaration, you will be the only eligible man here to accomplish the feat. But——"

THE HYPHEN.

The hyphen is a short dash used to join words that do not sufficiently coalesce to form one word, but that are too closely connected in meaning to form two separate words; thus:

Door-knob, dancing-master, twenty-one, three-fifths, 3-inch board, 2½-inch pole, to-day, to-night, to-morrow, Anglo-Saxon, Sadler-Rowe Publishing Company, commander-in-chief.

In many instances, usage varies as to the employment of the hyphen, and, in consequence it is difficult to give specific rules for the compounding of words; thus: *school-house* is written with the hyphen or as one word, *schoolhouse*. The following rules, however, are universally observed by careful writers:

Rule 1. Temporary compounds are hyphenated; thus:

(a) An adjective modifier consisting of an adjective and a noun, an adjective and a participle, two adjectives, or an adverb and a participle; as: "They took an *eight-mile* drive in the evening" (an adjective and a noun); "His *far-seeing* eyes rested on her face" (an adjective and a participle); "He had the *half-barbaric* superiority of the aristocrat" (two adjectives); "The stranger bowed with *well-bred* deference" (an adverb and a participle).

Note.—*Half* when used with either another

adjective, a participle, or an adverb, is connected with it by a hyphen; thus: *half-barbaric* superiority (two adjectives); *half-frightened* voice (adjective and participle); *half-hourly* intervals (adjective and adverb); *half-inch* space (adjective and noun).

Well and *ill* when used with a participle to form an adjective modifier, are always joined to the participle by a hyphen; but when used merely to modify a participle in the predicate, the hyphen is not employed; thus: "A *well-mannered* young man;" "An *ill-behaved* child," but "The young man was *well mannered*;" "The child was *ill behaved*." *Self* when used with an adverb, a noun, or another adjective, is always connected with it by a hyphen; thus: *self-confident*, or *self-assertive* (two adjectives); *self-asserting* (adjective and participle); *self-confidently* (adjective and adverb); *self-command* (adjective and noun).

(b) A phrase forming a temporary compound is hyphenated; thus: "A *never-to-be forgotten event*;" "An *I-told-you-so* expression;" "An *unlooker-for* visitor."

Rule 2. The hyphen is used when, by its omission, an entirely different meaning would be conveyed; thus:

Bird's-eye (plant); *dog's-tooth* (grass).

Note that *bird's eye* or *dog's tooth* written without the hyphen would convey a different meaning.

Syllabication

This division of words in syllables is known as syllabication.

(a) Words should be divided, when possible, according to their pronunciation, all the letters necessary to the pronunciation of each syllable being given, thus: *sis-ter*; *broth-er*; *moth-er*; *cous-in*; *hap-py*; *an-gel-ic*.

(b) Words should be divided according to their derivation, so as to separate the prefix, the suffix, or the grammatical ending from the rest of the word; thus: *re-mem-ber*; *re-solve*; *wid-ow*; *win-dow*; *sin-ful*; *soul-ful*.

(c) When the derivation and the pronunciation conflict, then precedence should be given to the latter; thus: *rep-re-sent* (not *re-pre-sent*) *ho-me-op-a-thy* (not *ho-me-o-path-y*).

Note.—Syllables are divided in accordance with the pronunciation, but contrary to the derivation of the words; thus, according to the derivation of *represent*, the prefix *re* should be separated from the word *present*, whereas the word is divided into conformity with its pronunciation, which makes the vowel short in the syllable *rep*.

(d) When two or more vowels are placed together to form a diphthong or a triphthong, as the case may be, they must not be separated; as, *loy-al*; *joy-ous*; but when two or more vowels placed together do not form a diphthong or a triphthong, the vowels may be divided; thus: *a-e-ri-form*; *co-or-di-nate*.

(e) Two consonants or two aspirates or a consonant and an aspirate are usually separated, unless kept together by the operation of some

other rule, as, for example, in paragraph *b*; thus: *col-lect*, *col-lar*; *hat-ter*; *en-ter*, but (*b*) *post-age*; *west-ern*.

Note.—There are several specific rules given by grammarians relatively to the placing of consonants, but they are, in the main, embodied in the foregoing rules; thus: the rule that a single consonant coming between two vowel sounds must be placed with the first vowel if the sound of the vowel is to be shortened is embodied in the paragraph *a*, words should be divided according to their pronunciation; for example, in the word *study* (or *studies*), the consonant *d* is placed with the first vowel, *stud-y* (*stud-ies*), while in the word *student*, the consonant *d* is placed with the second vowel, *stu-dent*.

REFERENCE DEPARTMENT

Language is the expression of thought and feeling.

Grammar is the scientific conformity of spoken or written words to the thought and feeling to be expressed.

The *function* of grammar is to show the relation that words bear to one another, and to teach the rules and principles whereby this relation can be expressed.

A word or expression is *grammatical* when it conforms to the rules and principles of grammar.

A word or expression is *ungrammatical* when it does not conform to the rules and principles of grammar.

An ungrammatical word or expression is either a *solecism*, an *idiom*, or a *colloquialism*.

(a) A *solecism* is a deviation from the grammar of the language and also from its usage (literary and conversational); as, "You *was*" for "You *were*," "It *don't*" for "It *does not*" or "It *doesn't*."

Note.—The *usage* of the language is the established or customary mode of employing a particular word or expression.

(b) An *idiom* is a deviation from the grammar of the language, but not from its literary usage; as, "You *had better go*," instead of "You *would better go*," "I *am mistaken*," instead of "I *mistake*."

Note.—A Word or expression is said to be idiomatic when it has the sanction of both the literary and the conversational employment of the language.

(c) A *colloquialism* is a deviation from the grammar of the language, but not from the usage of familiar conversation; as, “*It doesn’t*” for “*It does not.*”

Note.—It will be seen from the foregoing definitions that *solecisms* should always be avoided; that *idioms* may be employed with equal propriety in literary and in conversational usage; and that *colloquialisms* are permissible only in familiar conversation.

The person who aims to speak correctly will discriminate in favor of those colloquialisms which are used only by the best speakers; thus: such colloquialisms as, *aggravate* for *irritate*, *every once in a while* for *once in a while* should never be used by careful speakers, while such expressions as *It doesn’t*, *You’re not*, are always permissible in conversational usage.

The grammar of the English language is almost destitute of inflections, and, in consequence, grammatical construction is dependent almost entirely upon the relation that words bear to one another. The use that is made of a word determines the part of speech to which it belongs.

THE SENTENCE.

A *sentence* is a combination of words expressing complete sense.

A combination of words cannot express complete sense, unless it contains a subject and a predicate; hence, a sentence may be defined as a combination of words containing a *subject* and a *predicate*.

Ex.—Boys play. Grass grows.

The *subject* of a sentence is that of which something is affirmed. Thus, in the sentence, "Boys play," *boys* is the subject, because something is affirmed of it.

The *predicate* is that which affirms something of the subject. Thus, in the sentence, "Boys play," *play* is the predicate, because it affirms something of the subject.

The Subject of the Sentence.

When the subject of a sentence consists of one word, it is called the *subject noun* (or pronoun) or the *simple subject*.

Ex.—*Boys* play. *Men* work.

The Subject Noun (Simple Subject) and Its Modifiers.

A *modifier* is a word (or number of words) that either restricts or amplifies the meaning of the word of which it is the modifier.

(a) The subject noun may be modified by a noun or pronoun indicating possession.

Ex.—The *boy's* hat is in the tree. (*Boy's* is an adjective modifier of *hat*.)

(b) The subject may be modified by another noun or pronoun in apposition with it.

Ex.—Keats, the *poet*, died young. (*Poet* is an appositional modifier of the subject noun *Keats*.)

(c) The subject noun may be modified by an adjective.

Ex.—*Merry* birds are singing. (*Merry* is an adjective modifier of *birds*.)

Note.—The articles *a*, *an*, and *the*, are now regarded as adjectives. They modify the noun or pronoun.

Ex.—*A* fragrant flower is blooming. *An* old

armchair was in the corner. *The* merry birds are singing. (*A* is an adjective modifier of *flower*. *An* is an adjective modifier of *armchair*. *The* is an adjective modifier of *birds*.)

Note.—When the article precedes a noun indicating possession, as in the sentence, “The boy’s hat is in the tree,” the article modifies the possessive noun (*boy’s*), instead of the subject noun (*hat*).

(*d*) The subject noun may be modified by two or more words called a phrase.

Ex.—The boy *with the dark eyes* is playing. (*With the dark eyes* is a prepositional phrase and adjective modifier of *boy*.)

Note.—A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition and its object.

(*e*) The subject noun may be modified by a clause.

Ex.—The boy *that has the dark eyes* is singing. (*That has the dark eyes* is a clause and adjective modifier of *boy*.)

Phrases and Clauses Defined.

A *phrase* consists of two or more words used either as a noun or as a modifier. The distinguishing characteristic of a phrase is *that it does not contain a subject and a predicate*.

A *clause* consists of two or more words used either as a noun or as a modifier. The distinguishing characteristic of a clause is *that it always contains a subject and a predicate*.

Note.—A sentence always contains a subject and a predicate; hence, a clause is virtually a sentence. Note, however, that a clause is never separated from the rest of the construction by a period, while a sentence is. Furthermore, a clause does not always express complete sense, while a sentence does.

Simple and Complete Subject.

The noun (or its equivalent) that is used as the subject of a verb, is generally called the *subject noun* (or pronoun) or the *simple subject*; while the noun with its modifiers is called the *complete, or logical subject*.

Note.—In the examples given under 'The Subject Noun and Its Modifiers,' a, b, c, d, e, the words in italics with the subject noun, form the complete, or logical subject; while the noun without the words in italics, is the subject noun, or simple subject.

The Predicate of the Sentence.

The *predicate* of the sentence is that which affirms or denies something of the subject. The word that affirms or denies something of the subject is called the *predicate verb* or the *simple predicate*.

Ex.—Boys *play*, men *work*.

Note.—The simple predicate is often represented by more than one word; when this is the case, the verb that represents the action or the state is called the principal verb, while the verb or verbs that assist the principal verb to express the *time* of the action, or the state referred to, is called the auxiliary, or the auxiliaries, if there is more than one. Thus, in the sentence, "I shall go to-morrow," "I shall have gone by to-morrow," the verbs *go* and *gone* are the principal verbs, and *shall* and *shall have* are the auxiliaries.

The Predicate (Simple Predicate) and Its Modifiers.

A *modifier* is a word (or number of words) that either restricts or amplifies the meaning of the word of which it is the modifier.

(a) The predicate verb may be modified by an adverb.

Ex.—The boys play *roughly*. (*Roughly* is an adverb and adverbial modifier of *play*.)

(b) The predicate verb may be modified by two or more words called a phrase.

Ex.—The boys play *in the morning*. (*In the morning* is a prepositional phrase and adverbial modifier of *play*.)

(c) The predicate verb may be modified by a clause.

Ex.—The boys play *when the weather is pleasant*. (*When the weather is pleasant* is a clause and adverbial modifier of *play*.)

Note.—In the examples given under “Predicate and Its Modifiers,” a, b, c, the words in italics with the predicate verb form the complete, or logical predicate; while the verb without the words in italics, is the predicate verb, or simple predicate.

The word that completes the meaning of a verb is called the *complement*.

The Complement.

Complements are of two kinds; the *objective* complement and the *predicate* complement.

The *objective* complement is the word that completes the meaning of the verb which it follows, by receiving its action; as, “I like *books*.”

The *predicate* complement is the word that completes the meaning of the verb which it follows, without receiving its action; as, “He is an *author*,” “He is *good*.”

(a) The objective complement is always the object noun or its equivalent, with or without modifiers, while the predicate complement is either a noun, or its equivalent, or an adjective. Thus, in the sentence, “He likes books,” the objective

complement *books* is a noun. In the sentence, "He is an author," the predicate complement *author* is a noun, and is called the predicate noun; while in the sentence, "He is good," *good* is an adjective, and is called the predicate adjective.

(b) The distinguishing characteristic of the objective complement is that, except in the case of the reflexive use of the compound personal pronoun,* it always denotes a different person or thing from the subject; while the predicate complement always denotes, or refers to, the same person or thing as the subject. Thus, in the sentence, "He likes books," *books* denotes a different thing from the subject *he*, while in the sentence, "He is an author," *author* denotes the same person as the subject *he*; in the sentence, "He is good," *good* modifies the subject *he*.

Modifiers of the Complement.

The object noun and the predicate noun may be modified in the same way as the subject noun.

Kinds of Sentence.

Sentences may be of three kinds: *declarative*, *interrogative*, and *imperative*.

A *declarative* sentence is one that asserts; as, "He is good."

An *interrogative* sentence is one that asks a question; as, "Is he good?"

An *imperative* sentence is one that commands; as, "Be good."

*By the reflexive use of the compound personal pronoun is meant that use of the pronoun whereby the subject and the object denote, or refer to the same person or thing. Thus, in the sentence, "I hurt myself," the subject *I* and the objective *myself* denote the same person.

Declarative Sentences.

The subject of a declarative sentence precedes the verb.

Ex.—The *crayon is white*. The *bell rang*.

Interrogative Sentences.

The simple subject of an interrogative sentence frequently follows the verb, as in the case of the verbs, *do*, *does*, *did*, *is*, *was*, *were*, *are*, etc.

Ex.—*Is the crayon white?* Do you like your books?"

(a) Interrogative sentences often begin with the pronouns *who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, *what*. Thus: "*Who is there?*" "*Whose is this?*"

(b) Interrogative sentences often begin with the adverbs *why*, *where*, *when*, and *how*. Thus: "*Why are you going?*" "*Where is my hat?*"

(c) In interrogative sentences where the first word is not the simple subject, the latter can be readily ascertained by changing the interrogative to the declarative form. Thus, "Do you know me?" becomes when changed to the declarative form, "You do know me;" "Who is he?" becomes "He is *who*;" "Where is he?" becomes "He is *where*."

(d) When used in interrogative sentences the pronouns *who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, and *what* are called interrogative pronouns.

Imperative Sentences.

The simple subject (you) of an imperative sentence is generally understood.

Ex.—Run as fast as you can. (You) run as fast as you can.

Come home at once. (You) come home at once.

(a) Occasionally, as in Old English, the subject of an imperative sentence is expressed; thus: "Go *you* before Gloucester with these letters."

Any sentence, whether it is declarative, interrogative, or imperative, may be exclamatory; that is, it may express surprise or some other emotion. In cases of this kind, the sentences are called, respectively, *declarative exclamatory*, *interrogative exclamatory*, *imperative exclamatory*.

Ex.—Hurrah! here he comes! (Declarative Exclamatory.)

Oh, how could you leave him? (Interrogative Exclamatory.)

Oh, stop that noise! (Imperative Exclamatory.)

Classification of Sentences.

Sentences are divided into three classes: *simple*, *complex*, and *compound*.

The Simple Sentence.

A *simple sentence* is one that contains but one subject and one predicate.

Ex.—Boys play. The subject is *boy*, and the predicate is *play*.

Analysis of the Simple Sentence.

"Boys play ball." *Boys* is the subject because it is that of which something is affirmed; *play ball* is the predicate because it affirms something of the subject. *Boys* is the subject noun; *play* is the predicate verb; *ball* is the object noun.

The Complex Sentence.

A *complex sentence* is one that contains at least

one principal clause and one or more dependent or subordinate clauses.

Ex.—Boys play when school is out. The principal clause is *boys play*, and the subordinate clause is *when school is out*.

Analysis of the Complex Sentence.

“Boys play when the weather is pleasant.” *Boys play* is the principal clause, of which *boys* is the subject noun, and *play* is the predicate verb. *When the weather is pleasant* is the subordinate clause, of which *weather* is the subject noun, *is* the predicate verb, and *pleasant* is the predicate complement (adjective in the predicate that modifies the subject noun).

The Subordinate Clause.

1. The subordinate clause in a complex sentence may modify the subject noun. Thus: “The boy that has the dark eyes is playing.” In this sentence, *the boy is playing* is the principal clause and *that has the dark eyes* is the subordinate clause modifying the subject *boy*.

2. The subordinate clause in a complex sentence may modify the predicate verb. Thus: “The boys play when the weather is pleasant.” *The boys play* is the principal clause, and *when the weather is pleasant* is the subordinate or dependent clause modifying the verb *play*.

3. The subordinate clause in a complex sentence may modify the object noun. Thus: “John likes books that are interesting.” *John like books* is the principal clause, and *that are interesting* is the subordinate clause modifying the object *books*.

The Compound Sentence.

A *compound sentence* is one that contains two or more principal clauses.

Ex.—John goes to school, and Mary stays at home. The first principal clause is *John goes to school*, and the second principal clause is *Mary stays at home*.

Analysis of the Compound Sentence.

“Boys play base-ball, and girls play basket-ball.” *Boys play base-ball* is an independent clause, of which *boys* is the subject noun, *play* is the predicate verb, and *base-ball* is the object noun. *Girls play basket-ball* is the other independent clause, of which *girls* is the subject noun, *play* is the predicate verb, and *basket-ball* is the object noun.

Compound Subjects, Predicates, and Objects.

A *simple*, *complex*, or *compound* sentence may contain a compound subject, a compound predicate, or a compound object.

Ex.—1. *John and James* are going to school. (Simple sentence with a compound subject.)

2. *John sings and plays*. (Simple sentence with a compound predicate.)

3. *John* is studying *German and French*. (Simple sentence with a compound object.)

4. *John and James* assist their father when they return from school. (Complex sentence with a compound subject.)

5. *John reads and writes* well although he is only seven years old. (Complex sentence with a compound predicate.)

6. *John* plays both the *piano and the violin*

although he has had no instruction. (Complex sentence with a compound object.)

7. *John and James* are going to school and Mary is staying home. (Compound sentence with a compound subject.)

8. John *stays* at home and *assists* his father and James goes to school. (Compound sentence with a compound predicate.)

9. John is studying *German and French* and Mary is studying English. (Compound sentence with a compound object.)

Compound Sentences Which Include Complex Sentences.

An independent clause of a compound sentence that is modified by a subordinate clause is, when considered alone, a complex sentence, and its analysis should be that of a complex sentence.

Ex.—John stays at home in order that he may help his father, but James goes to school.

Analysis.

“John stays at home in order that he may help his father,” is an independent clause; “James goes to school” is an independent clause, and is joined to the first clause by the connective *but*. The first clause, *John stays at home in order that he may help his father*, when considered alone is a complex sentence of which *John stays at home* is the principal clause and *in order that he may help his father* is the subordinate clause.

Abstract Nouns.

1. Abstract nouns formed from adjectives.

Note.—Abstract nouns formed from adjectives of quality denote the quality as considered apart

from the person or thing to which it belongs.

Adjectives.

Abstract Nouns.

angry

anger

bad

badness

brave

bravery

good

goodness

happy

happiness

2. *Abstract nouns formed from verbs.*

Note.—Abstract nouns formed from verbs of action denote the action as considered apart from the actor.

Verbs.

Abstract Nouns.

approve

approval

choose

choice

hate

hatred (or the noun "hate")

3. *Abstract nouns are sometimes formed from common nouns.*

Common Nouns.

Abstract Nouns.

friend

friendship

hero

heroism

child

childhood

Note.—Occasionally a noun is used as an abstract noun, and again as a common noun. Thus, *nobility*, in one of its meanings, is abstract; in another, it is common; as, for example when used to denote a particular class of people, as the *nobility* of England.

Exercise.

1. Form abstract nouns from the following list of adjectives: *careless, cautious, false, free, hasty, holy, long, regular, round.*

2. Form abstract nouns from the following list of verbs: *absolve, abstract, confer, imagine, move, occupy, please, protect, read, reflect, relieve, revive.*

3. Form abstract nouns from the following

use of common nouns: *baby, brother, girl, man, woman.*

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS.

Person, number, gender and case are called the properties of a noun.

Person.

Person is that use of the noun which indicates whether it denotes the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

The person speaking is referred to as the *first* person; the person spoken to, as the *second*; the person spoken of, as the *third*.

Inasmuch as nouns undergo no change of form to indicate this property they will all be regarded as in the third person.

(a) Appositional nouns, that is, nouns which are used in an explanatory way, as in the sentence, "I, *John*, am speaking," are regarded by some grammarians, as in the same person as the pronoun to which they are apposed. But, as nouns of this kind do not materially affect the relation that the parts of the sentence bear to one another, in order to avoid confusion, they will not be regarded as possessing *person*, in this exposition.

Irregular Plurals.

(a) Some nouns form the plural number by adding "en" to the singular; others, by an internal change.

("en")	(internal change)
Singular.	Plural.
ox	oxen
child	children

Singular.	Plural.
man	men
woman	women

(b) Some nouns have two plurals, which differ in meaning; thus:

Singular.	Plural.
brother	brothers (by birth)
cloth	cloths (kinds of cloth)
die	dies (for coining)
fish	fishes (separate fish)
genius	geniuses (persons of great ability)
index	indexes (table of contents)
pea	peas (regarded separately)
penny	pennies (separate coins)
shot	shots (discharges)

Plural.

brethren (of a community)
 clothes (garments)
 dice (for play)
 fish (collective)
 genii (spirits)
 indices (in Algebra)
 pease (collective)
 pence (sum of money)
 shot (balls)

(c) Letters of the Alphabet and figures indicating numbers and other special signs form their plural by adding 's to the singular number.

Always dot your *i*'s and cross your *t*'s.

Mind your *p*'s and *q*'s.

Your *t*'s and *x*'s are too much alike.

You have made your *j*'s like your *i*'s.

Foreign Plurals.

(a) Foreign words that have been imported into the English language, retain their foreign plurals; and, in many cases, when commonly used, they have two plurals, viz., a foreign and an English.

Examples of Foreign Words with Two Plural Forms.

Singular number. English Plural. Foreign plural.

apex	apexes	apices
automaton	automatons	automata
appendix	appendixes	appendices
bandit	bandits	banditti
candelabrum	candelabrams	candelabra
cherub	cherubs	cherubim
focus	focuses	foci
index	indexes	indices
medium	mediums	media
memorandum	memorandums	memoranda

Note.—The plural form “indices” is restricted in its application, it being used especially as a scientific term, as in Algebra. “Indexes” is the correct form to use when referring to the plural of index, a detailed alphabetic list of topics, etc.

(b) Foreign words that have not passed into common use have only one plural form, viz., the foreign.

Latin Words with but One Plural Form.

Singular.	Plural.
amanuensis	amanuenses
axis	axes
datum	data

nebula	nebulae
stratum	strata
vortex	vortices

Note.—The plural of “prospectus” is “prospectuses.”

Greek Words with but One Plural Form.

Singular.	Plural.
analysis	analyses
antithesis	antitheses
basis	bases
crisis	crises
criterion or criteriui	criteria
ellipsis	ellipses
hypothesis	hypotheses
phenomenon	phenomena
thesis	theses

(c) Some nouns are used only in the plural; as, *alms, archives, ashes*, etc.

(d) Some nouns are plural in form but are used only as singular nouns; as, *amends, news, gallows, politics*, etc.

(e) Some nouns have only a plural form, but may be used in either the singular or the plural; as, *means, pains*, etc.

(f) Some nouns have the same form for both the singular and the plural; as, *deer, sheep, trout*.

(g) Some nouns such as *pair, dozen, hundred*, etc., are subject to special rules; thus: when preceded by a numeral, whether singular or plural in meaning, they take singular form; but, when not preceded by a numeral, they take the plural form.

Gender.

Gender is that form of the noun which denotes sex.

(a) To denote the gender of an English noun is necessary only when it is followed by a pronoun, for the reason that the form of the pronoun alone is affected by the gender of the noun to which it refers, thus, "The father loves *his* children."

There are four genders: *masculine*, *feminine*, *common*, and *neuter*.

The *masculine* gender denotes the male sex.

Ex.—James, boy, captain, soldier.

The *feminine* gender denotes the female sex.

Ex.—Mary, girl, seamstress, woman.

The *common* gender denotes either male or female.

Ex.—Friend, doctor, sheep, nurse.

The *neuter* gender denotes neither male nor female. *Neuter* is from the Latin and means *neither*; thus: things without animal life are said to be of the *neuter* gender, because they are *neither* masculine nor feminine.

Ex.—Book, apple, glass, plant, flower.

The distinction of gender is especially important in one essential, namely, in relation that pronouns bear to nouns, for the gender of the noun influences the form of the pronoun; thus: in the sentence, "*Mary* has learned *her* lesson," the gender of the noun *Mary* influences the form of the pronoun *her* or, as we say, determines the gender of the pronoun.

A pronoun must be of the same gender as the noun which it represents or to which it refers.

The only pronouns that are affected by *gender* are the following:

Masculine: *he, his, him.*

Feminine: *she, her, hers.*

Neuter: *it, its, it.*

(*Who, whose, whom* are the forms for both masculine and feminine.)

Special Rules of Gender.

Nouns which are really of the neuter gender may become either masculine or feminine, as the case may require. Thus: "Nature lingers, still loth to change her dress of green" (feminine). "The sun rose in all his splendor" (masculine).

Some neuter nouns are always referred to as feminine even when not personified; thus: such words as *ship, brig, schooner*, are always referred to by the pronoun *her*, and hence are regarded as of the feminine gender.

Small children are sometimes referred to as *it*; thus: "The baby hurt *its* head."

The lower animals when large, are referred to by the pronoun *he*; small animals by the pronoun *it*. When animals are spoken of as if they were human beings, the pronoun *he* is used of both large and small animals.

Note.—The masculine gender is frequently used for both sexes; thus: it is in accordance with the best usage of the language to use the form *Editor, Author, Doctor*, etc., for both sexes. (*Actress* is still used for the feminine gender.)

Case.

Case is that use of the noun which indicates whether the noun is a subject, an object, a predicate complement, a possessive modifier, or an appositional element.

There are three cases: *nominative*, *objective*, and *possessive*.

Nominative Case.

The *nominative* case is subject to the following rules:

(a) A noun used as the subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

Ex.—The *pupils* studied diligently. (*Pupils* is the subject of the verb *studied*.)

(b) A noun used as the subject of an independent construction is in the nominative case.

Ex.—The *pupils* having studied diligently, the teacher dismissed them. (*Pupils* is the subject of *having studied*.)

Note.—An independent construction is one in which the subject of a participle is not at the same time the subject of a verb. Thus, *pupils* is the subject of the participle “having studied,” but is not at the same time the subject of a verb.

A participle is a word that is formed from a verb and that has the function of both a verb and an adjective. (For full exposition, see THE PARTICIPLE, pp. 278-280.)

(c) A noun used as a term of address is in the nominative case.

Ex.—O *Mary*! Where have you been? (*Mary* is used as a term of address.)

Note.—Caution is necessary in constructions of this kind in order that the *term of address* may not be mis-

taken for the subject. Special care must be taken in the case of imperative sentences, for the reason that, as a rule, the subject is not expressed; thus: "Mary, come here; "Mary (you) come here."

The Objective Case.

The *objective* case is subject to the following rules:

(a) A noun used as the object of a verb, is in the objective case.

Ex.—The pupil answered the *question*. (*Question* is the object of the verb *answered*.)

(b) A noun used as the object of a preposition, is in the objective case.

Ex.—The pupil went to *school*. (*School* is the object of the preposition *to*.)

(c) A noun used as the subject of an infinitive, is in the objective case.

Ex.—The teacher asked the *pupil* to return. (*Pupil* is the subject of the infinitive to *return*.)

Note.—An infinitive is a word that is formed from a verb and that expresses infinity as to time; as, *to go*, *to do*, *to love*, etc. These forms are not restricted to either present, past, or future time. *To* is the sign of the infinitive.

A noun used in apposition with another noun, is in the same case as the noun to which it is apposed.

Ex.—John, the *pupil*, answered the question. (*Pupil*, the appositional noun, is in the nominative case to agree with the subject *John*.) 2. The teacher praised James, her *pupil*. (*Pupil*, the appositional noun, is in the objective case to agree with the object *James*.)

Note.—A noun is said to be in apposition with **another** noun when it explains the meaning of that noun.

A noun or pronoun in the predicate used to denote the same person or thing as the subject, is in the same case.

Ex.—John is a pupil. (*Pupil*, in the predicate, is in the nominative case, because the subject *John* is in the nominative case.) 2. The teacher supposed James to be her pupil. (*Pupil* is in the objective case because the subject *James*, in the infinitive clause, is in the objective case.)

The Possessive Case.

The *possessive* case is subject to the following rule:

(a) A noun used to modify another noun by indicating possession is in the possessive case.

Ex.—John's teacher is here. (*John* is a possessive modifier of *teacher*, and hence, is in the possessive case.)

The Double Possessive.

The following are examples of double possessives:

(a) Sometimes possession is indicated not only by the apostrophe (') and the letter "s," but by the preposition "of" as well; as, "This is a farm *of my uncle's*."

This is a peculiarity *of my father's*.

This is a house *of my uncle's*.

She is a servant *of my aunt's*.

This is a story *of my brother's*.

(b) The double possessive is not in strict conformity to the *grammar* of modern English,

but is in accordance with its idiomatic employment. Thus, while "This is a peculiarity *of my father's*," may be reduced to, "This is one of the peculiarities of my father's peculiarities," in many constructions the form cannot be so construed; thus, "She is a servant *of my aunt's*," could not be construed, "She is a servant of my aunt's servants," if the aunt employs but one servant. However, as has been indicated the construction is idiomatic, and while it does not conform to the grammar of the language, it does to its literary usage, and hence must not be censured.

Standard says: "In spite of ignorant censure of the double possessive, literary usage has long accepted it."

(c) In many instances, the construction can be changed without destroying the meaning; thus, "This is a house of my uncle's," may be changed to, "This is my uncle's house." In the following sentences, however, a change of construction would change the meaning:

Singular Possessive.

This is a criticism *of John*.

This is a portrait *of her*.

This is an opinion *of Peter*.

Double Possessive.

This is a criticism *of John's*.

This is a portrait *of hers*.

This is an opinion *of Peter's*.

(d) Where single possession is used, the meaning of the sentence is entirely different from

that where double possession is used. Thus, "This is a criticism *of* John," means that some one has criticised John; while, "This is a criticism *of John's*," means that John has been making the criticism. "This is a portrait *of* her," means that it is her own likeness, while "This is a portrait *of hers*," means that the portrait belongs to her, it being the likeness of some one else.

(e) The possessive inflection is rarely used in the case of inanimate objects, unless they are personified; thus, we say correctly, "The moon's face," but not "The book's leaves."

Correct.

Incorrect.

The leaves of the book.	The book's leaves.
The roof of the house.	The house's roof.
The bark of the tree.	The tree's bark.

(f) We say, however, "The law's delay," because we think of the law as being vested with power, the same as a human being. For this reason, the following are correct: "Reason's voice," "Passion's lure," "Fancy's blight," "History's business," "Society's well-being," "For conscience' sake."

(g) Sometimes, however, the possessive is used without personification; as, "For appearance's sake," "For old acquaintance's sake." Again, both the apostrophe and the letter "s" may be omitted in words that modify the noun "sake;" thus: "For acquaintance sake," "For appearance sake," "For fashion sake," "For heaven sake."

THE PARSING OF THE NOUN.

To *parse* is to state the part of speech of a word, and to show its relation to other words in a sentence; also to resolve a sentence into its principal parts.

The parsing of a noun consists in stating:

- | | |
|---------------|---------------|
| 1. Its class | 4. Its gender |
| 2. Its person | 5. Its case |
| 3. Its number | |

Model for Parsing the Noun.

"John paints pictures." *John* is a noun; proper because it belongs to some particular person, which distinguishes it from other members of the same class; third person, because it is spoken of; Singular number, because it denotes but one; masculine gender, because it denotes the male sex; nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *paints*.

Rule.—The subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

Pictures is a noun; a common noun, because it is used as the name of a class; third person, because it is spoken of; plural number, because it denotes more than one; neuter gender, because it denotes the absence of sex; objective case, because it is the object of the verb *paints*.

Rule.—The object of a verb is in the objective case.

Verbals.

A *verbal* is a word that is formed from a verb, and that partakes of the functions of both a verb and some other part of speech.

There are three forms of *verbals*: the *participle*, the *gerund* or *verbal noun*, and the *infinitive*.

THE PARTICIPLE.

The *participle* is a word that is formed from a verb, and that is used either as a modifier or as a verb. (*Participle* is from the Latin *participare*, to share or partake.)

The child *crying* aloud, attracted the attention of the mother.

The teacher *being* absent, the pupils returned to their homes.

The Participle and Its Forms.

The *participle* has two forms: *present* and *perfect*.

1. The *present participle* is formed by an external change of the verb, namely, by adding *ing* to the simple form of the verb; as, "teaching," "singing." It expresses action or state in progress, and hence, as incomplete.

Note.—The *present* participle is sometimes called the *imperfect* participle.

2. The *past participle* is formed by either an internal or an external change of the verb; as, *taught* (internal), *loved* (external). It expresses the action or the state either as completed in the past or as just completed or as continuing in its effect.

Note.—The *past participle* when expressing action or state as just completed or continuing in its effect, is sometimes called the *perfect* participle, the term *past*

participle being restricted to express action as completed in the past.

The Participle and Its Uses.

The *participle* has two uses: That of a *modifier* and that of a *verb*.

1. The *participle* as a *modifier*.

(a) The participle may be used as a verbal adjective (verb and adjective at the same time); and when it is so used, *it is always a modifier*.

Ex.—The mother, *working* from morn till night, found no time for recreation.

The hunter, unexpectedly *firing* his gun, wounded his companion.

Note.—*Working* is a verbal adjective, because it has the function of a verb (expresses an action that is performed by the subject “mother”), and at the same time, it modifies the noun “mother” after the manner of an adjective (*working* mother).

Firing is a verbal adjective, because it has the function of a verb (expresses an action performed by the subject “hunter”), and at the same time modifies the noun “hunter,” modifying it after the manner of an adjective. As a verb, it is modified by the adverb “unexpectedly,” and, being formed from a transitive verb, it takes a receiver for its action the noun “gun.”

In some constructions, the participle is regarded by many grammarians, as a verbal adverb instead of a verbal adjective; thus: in the sentence, “He came *running* down the street,” *running* would be regarded by many authorities as equivalent to an adverb of manner.

(b) The participle may be used purely as an adjective.

Ex.—The *crying* child attracted the attention of the other.

Note.—“Crying” has the function of an adjective, because it modifies a noun in the same way as does an *adjective proper*; and, as the participle is used purely as an adjective in construction of this kind, it is called a

participial adjective in order to distinguish it from the *participle proper*, which is used either as a verbal adjective or as a verb.

2. The *participle* as a verb.

(a) The participle may be used as a verb to express action or state, with a noun in the nominative case. This is known as the *absolute* or *independent construction*.

Ex.—The sun *having arisen*, the travelers proceeded on their way.

His heart *being* light, he sleeps peacefully.

It *being* he, you need have no fear.

Note.—“*Having arisen*” has the function purely of a verb, because it expresses an action performed by the subject (sun), which is not at the same time the subject of a *verb proper*. In other words, the participle in this construction has an exclusive subject of its own; whereas, in sentences where the participle is used as a verbal adjective (verb and adjective at the same time), the participle must *share* its subject with another verb. Because of this exclusive possession of a subject by the participle in sentences of this kind, the construction is termed *absolute*.

“*Being*” has the function of a verb, because it expresses existence of the subject (*heart*), which is not at the same time the subject of a *verb proper*.

Note.—Sometimes there is an omission of the participle; as, “His heart light (*being* light), he sleeps peacefully.”

(b) The participle is used after the manner of a verb in some constructions where its subject is also the subject of a *verb proper*.

Ex.—The hunter *having wounded* the deer was able to capture him.

Note.—There is no radical difference between this construction and that of the participle in the *absolute* construction; but in order to avoid confusion, the participle in sentences of this kind is regarded as a verbal

adjective, and, hence, as an adjective modifier of the subject.

Special Uses of the Participle in the Formation of the Tenses.

The *participle* may be used with an auxiliary verb to form the progressive and perfect tenses of a verb.

(a) An auxiliary verb is one that aids another in expressing its meaning.

(b) The *progressive* tense of a verb is that which expresses the time of the action or state as continuous; as, "I *am* teaching," "I *was* teaching," "I *have been* teaching," "I *had been* teaching," "I *shall be* teaching," "I *shall have been* teaching."

(c) The *perfect* tense of a verb is that which expresses the time of the action or state as completed; as, I *have* taught, I *had* taught, I *shall have* taught.

Review.

The italics in the following sentences indicate the participles:

1. The child *crying* aloud attracted the attention of the woman. The participle modifies the noun "child" after the manner of an adjective, and is modified by an adverb after the manner of a verb.

2. The child *crying* aloud, the woman stopped to inquire the cause. The participle is used after the manner of a verb in that it expresses action, and at the same time has an exclusive subject of its own; that is, *it has a subject that is not at the same time the subject of a verb.*

3. The *crying* child attracted the attention of the woman. (Participle is used purely as an adjective.)

4. The child came *crying* down the street. (Participle

regarded by some as modifying the verb after the manner of an adverb.)

THE GERUND, OR VERBAL NOUN.

The *gerund*, or *verbal* noun, is a word that is formed from a verb, and that is used both as a verb and as a noun *at the same time*. It is formed by adding *ing* to the simple form of the verb; as, "*going*," "*doing*," "*seeing*."

(Gerund is from the Latin *gerere*, to carry, the function of the verb being *carried* into that of the noun.)

Note.—The distinguishing characteristic of the gerund (verbal noun), is that it is always both a noun and a verb at the same time. Thus: as a noun, it may be the subject of a verb or the object of a verb, or of a preposition, or a predicate complement (noun), and it may be modified by an adjective or an adjective phrase. As a verb, it may express action and may be modified by an adverb or an adverbial phrase, and when derived from a transitive verb in the active voice, it governs a noun (or pronoun) in the objective case.

We say a verb governs a noun (or pronoun) in the objective case when it requires an object to receive its action; as "John struck *James*."

The following are the uses of the *gerund* (verbal noun).

1. The *gerund* may be the subject; as, "*Painting* is a delightful pastime."
2. The *gerund* may be the object; as, "I enjoy *painting*."
3. The *gerund* may be the object of a preposition; as, "I devote several hours each day to *painting*."

Note.—The gerund may have both a direct and an indirect object; as, "I enjoyed painting *him* a *picture*," that is, "I enjoyed painting a picture *for* him."

4. The *gerund* may be the predicate complement (noun in the predicate that denotes the same person or thing as the subject) ; as, "Seeing is *believing*."

5. The *gerund* may be modified by an adjective; as, "*Rapid painting* often results in careless habits."

Note.—In all the foregoing sentences, the gerund (verbal noun) expresses action; hence, it has the function of a verb as well as that of a noun. In the following sentences, the true verb nature is fully shown; thus: "I enjoy *painting* pictures." "*Painting* rapidly is hard work."

In the first sentence, *painting* is a noun because it is used as the object of the verb *enjoy*; it is a verb because it expresses action, and has an object *picture* as the receiver of its action; in the second sentence *painting* is a noun because it is the subject of the predicate verb *is*; it is a verb because it expresses action, and is modified by the adverb *rapidly*.

The italics in the following sentences indicate *verbal nouns*.

I enjoyed *seeing* her. Her surprise at *seeing* him was genuine. My *coming* home prevented her *going*. *Fishing* and *hunting* were his amusements. I was surprised at her *going* abroad.

Possessive Case Before the Gerund

When the *gerund* (verbal noun) is preceded by a noun or a pronoun, that noun or pronoun must be put in the possessive case. In other words, the same rule that applies to other nouns is applicable to the gerund.

Correct

I was surprised at *John's refusing* to go.

There is no need of *your remaining* any longer.

There was no need of *my remaining*.

There is no need of *his going*.

Our united efforts could not prevent *his going*.

She carried it home for fear of *its breaking*.

She spoke about *our coming* to visit her.

There is no excuse for *his staying* away.

Incorrect

I was surprised at *John refusing* to go.

There is no need of *you remaining* any longer.

There was no need of *me remaining*.

There is no need of *him going*.

Our united efforts could not prevent *him going*.

She carried it home for fear of *it breaking*.

She spoke about *us coming* to visit her.

There is no excuse for *him staying* away.

Exercise.

All the following constructions are correct:

1. "Andrew Carnegie and many other eminent business men attach great consequence to *one's beginning* at the bottom."

2. "'Not at all,' said the Duchess, in a dangerously quiet tone of voice. 'If you do not mind *my not answering* you.'"

3. "To my mind, she was always exciting her brain too much, etc. I don't care what William says about *his* being like Wordsworth."

4. "She spoke of *Ella's having* two long letters."

5. "Mother would not think of *my being* an artist."

6. "The etiquette during the visit of royalty at a country house is, as a rule, restricted to the ceremonial of *every one's rising* on the entrance of the royal personage into the room."

7. "They could imagine *its being liked* by a successful young man of business, or by a rich young girl, ignorant of life, etc. They could not think of *any one's loving* New York as Dante loved Florence or as Madame de Staël loved Paris or as Johnson loved black, homely-like London."

8. "I have no objections to *your being* present at Christmas and Thanksgiving and birthdays, but I really must draw the line somewhere."

Care must be taken to distinguish the abstract

noun from the participle or the gerund. Abstract nouns formed from verbs and ending with "ing," are as a rule preceded by "the" and followed by "of"; as, "The *firing* of the gun frightened the children." Note that the abstract noun, unlike the gerund, can not be modified by an adverb, nor can it govern a noun in the objective case. It is comparatively easy to distinguish the abstract noun from the participle or the gerund, but it is not so easy to distinguish the participle from the gerund. The following are some of the tests by which the difference may be determined:

1. A noun or pronoun preceding a participle is always in either the nominative or the objective case, while a noun or pronoun preceding a gerund is always in the possessive case.

The Participle

John, *leaving* home without the permission of his parents, soon began to regret his folly.

Mary, *going* to the office unexpectedly, found that her employer had returned.

The Gerund

I am surprised at John's *leaving* home without the permission of his parents.

I see no reason why Mary's *going* should affect your plans.

2. The gerund is always in either the nominative or the objective case, while the participle does not possess the property of case.

The Participle

Singing merry songs, the child whiled away many a weary hour.

The Gerund

Singing merry songs made the child forget his loneliness.

Note.—In the participial construction, "singing merry songs," "singing" modifies the noun "child" after the

manner of an adjective. In the gerundial construction, "singing" is the subject noun (subject of the verb "made").

In connection with test 1, note that in the participial construction under test 2, the participial phrase "singing merry songs" is transposed. If it were not transposed, it would follow the noun "child," which is in the nominative case.

Further Examples of the Gerund.

The gerund is always in either the nominative or the objective case.

Nominative Case

"His playing foot-ball was the cause of his injuries."

Playing is the subject noun, and, hence, is in the nominative case.

"The cause of his injuries was his playing foot-ball."

Playing is the predicate complement, and, hence, is in the nominative case.

Objective Case

"He enjoyed playing foot-ball."

Playing is the object noun, and, hence, is in the objective case.

"His mother objected to his playing foot-ball."

Playing is the indirect object of the verb (object of the preposition *to*), and, hence, is in the objective case.

Note.—The reason why the noun or pronoun that precedes the gerund is in the possessive case, is because the gerund itself is either a subject or an object noun or a predicate complement, and, hence, is in either the objective or the nominative case. It can be easily seen that if the gerund is preceded by a noun (or pronoun) the noun (or pronoun) must be converted into an adjective modifier, and, hence, must be put into the possessive case.

THE INFINITIVE.

The *infinitive* is a word that partakes of the nature of both a noun and a verb. It partakes of the nature of a noun when it is used as a name. It partakes of the nature of a verb, when it expresses action or state.

Ex.—*To err* is human.

I invited him *to go*.

The Infinitive and Its Uses.

The infinitive has two uses: that of a *verbal noun* and that of a *verb*. When it is used as a verbal noun, it is used as both a verb and a noun *at the same time*. When it is used as a verb, it has not the function of a noun.

Note.—As a verbal noun, the infinitive is capable of being used in the same way as the gerund, or verbal noun.

1. The *infinitive* as a *verbal noun*.

(a) The infinitive may be the subject; as, "*To steal* is disgraceful."

Note.—*To steal* has the function of a noun, because it is used as a name and as the subject of the verb *is*. This can be seen by substituting for the infinitive *to steal*, the noun *stealing*.

(b) The infinitive may sometimes be the real subject when the apparent subject is the pronoun "it"; as, "It is good *to be here*." The real meaning is, *to be here is good*. "It is unfortunate *to have a quick temper*." The real meaning is, *to have a quick temper is unfortunate*.

(c) The infinitive may be the object; as, "I like *to sing*."

Note.—*To sing* has the function of a noun, because it is used as a name and as the object of the verb *like*.

This can be seen by substituting for the infinitive *to sing*, the noun *singing*.

(d) The infinitive may be the predicate complement; thus:

1. The infinitive may be the predicate noun; as, "his fault is *to talk* too much."

Note.—*To talk* has the function of a noun, because it is used as a name and also as the complement of the verb. Thus, by substituting for the infinitive *to talk*, the noun *talking*, the true function of the infinitive can be seen.

2. The infinitive may be used as the equivalent of a predicate adjective or adjective phrase (adjective in the predicate referring to the subject); as, "The meeting is *to be postponed*." (Compare this with "The meeting is *in progress*.")

Note.—As the verb "to be" cannot be modified by an adverb, the word, phrase, or clause that follows it is regarded as its complement.

When the infinitive follows the verb "to be," it may be regarded in each instance as the complement (predicate noun or adjective completing the meaning of the verb and referring to the subject). When it denotes the same person or thing as the subject, it is construed as the equivalent of a noun; when it is used as in the foregoing construction, it may be construed as the equivalent of an adjective. When following the verb *be* (*am, is, was, etc.*) the infinitive, in many constructions, seems to form with the verb, merely a kind of future tense; but, to avoid confusion, it is better to construe it as the complement (equivalent of an adjective). The following are examples of constructions of this kind:

The wedding was *to be* next week.

He was *to be* here on Monday.

He is *to call* on Tuesday.

She is about *to return*.

(In the last sentence, *about* is an adverb and modifies "*to return*.")

(f) The infinitive may be used as the object of a preposition understood; as, "The sower went forth *to sow*." Here the preposition *for* is understood; as, "The sower went forth *for to sow*." This construction was used in Anglo-Saxon, *for* being expressed, as in the sentence, "What came ye out *for to see*?" This is called by some grammarians, the gerundial construction.

Note.—*To sow* has the function of a noun because it is used as a name, and is the object of a preposition understood.

When the preposition "for" can be supplied before the infinitive, the infinitive and the preposition form a phrase, which is always a modifier; that is, when the preposition "for" may be understood, but not *expressed* before the infinitive. Thus:

"Water (for) *to drink* is scarce."

"I tried (for) *to learn this*."

"I am glad (for) *to hear this*."

When the infinitive modifies a noun, it is an adjective modifier; when it modifies a verb or an adjective, it is an adverbial modifier; thus: in the first sentence, the infinitive phrase (for) *to drink* modifies the noun *water*, and hence, is an adjective modifier; in the second sentence, the infinitive noun phrase (for) *to learn this* modifies *tried*, and, hence, is an adverbial modifier; in the third sentence, the infinitive noun phrase (for) *to hear this* modifies the adjective *glad*, and, hence, is an adverbial modifier. (It would be equally correct to regard the infinitive noun phrase as a modifier of the thought expressed by *am glad*.)

Note.—In all the foregoing sentences, the infinitive expresses action or state; hence, it has the function of a verb as well as that of a noun. In the following sentences, the true verb nature is fully shown; thus: "*To paint* pictures is a pleasant pastime." "*To paint* rapidly is hard work." In the first sentence the infinitive (verbal noun) shows its noun nature by being used as the subject of the verb *is*; it shows its verb nature by expressing action and by having a receiver for its action in the noun *pictures*. In the second sentence, the infinitive shows its noun nature by being used as the subject of the verb *is*; it shows its verb nature by expressing action and by being modified by the adverb *rapidly*.

Note that the infinitive is closely allied to the gerund, or verbal noun, in all its uses.

2. The Infinitive as a verb.

(a) The *infinitive* may be a verb, and when it is, its subject is always in the objective case; as, "I told him to *sing*."

When the infinitive is a verb, it always expresses some action or state of its subject. Thus, in the sentence, "I told him *to sing*," the act of singing is to be done *by him*, while in other constructions, as for example, "*Water to drink* is scarce," the drinking is not to be done by the water. In other words, when the infinitive is a verb, it expresses an act to be performed by its subject or a condition or state of that subject; when it is used as a modifier, it expresses purpose; thus: "*Water to drink*" means *water for the purpose of drinking*, just as in Anglo-Saxon, the construction, "What came ye out for to see," meant *what came ye out for the purpose of seeing*.

Some grammarians call such construction as "him to sing" an infinitive noun phrase. This is incorrect, for the reason that the construction in question contains a subject "him" and a predicate "to sing," and in consequence, it is a clause. Note in this connection that the subject of an infinitive is in the objective case.

(b) The sign of the infinitive, the preposition *to*, is omitted in special constructions, after the verbs *let*, *dare*, *do*, *bid*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *need*, etc. Thus: "I *let* him *go*" (to go); "You *dare* not *go*" (to go); "We *heard* the lion *roar*" (to roar); "I *felt* his heart *beat*" (to beat); "You *need* not *go*" (to go), etc.

Note.—"Dare" was originally, and is still often used in the third person, singular number of the present tense without the terminal "s;" as, "He *dare* not do it;" and also, "need," meaning obligation, is often used in the third person, singular number of the present tense, without the terminal "s," especially in negative and interrogative sentences; as, "He *need* not go." "*Need* he go?" When "need" is used in the sense of "want," the usual terminal is employed; as, "He *needs* a new coat."

(c) The sign of the infinitive is now omitted after the verbs *may*, *can*, *shall*, *will*, and *must*; in consequence, these verbs are regarded as auxiliaries, while the infinitives are construed as the principal verbs; thus, in the sentence, "I may go," *may* is construed as the auxiliary, and *go* as the principal verb.

(d) When the infinitive is a verb, not only the preposition but the infinitive is often omitted after the verbs *make*, *choose*, *elect*, *appoint*, etc. Thus: "They *made* him president" (to be president); "They *chose* him captain" (to be captain); "They *appointed* him chairman" (to be chairman).

Note.—In such sentences as, "They called him John," there is an ellipsis of several words, thus: "They called him *by the name of* John;" but for convenience, constructions of this kind may be regarded as of the same class as those in which the infinitive is omitted.

Note that in constructions like the foregoing (*d*), the object of the verb is, in each instance, not the noun that follows it, but the *infinitive noun clause*, which is composed of the subject of the infinitive understood and its complement; thus: in the sentence, "They made him president," the object of the verb *made* is the infinitive noun clause, "him to be president, of which *him* is the subject, *to be* is the infinitive verb, and *president* is the complement.

(*e*) *Have*, a transitive verb, when used in the sense of *must* and followed by the infinitive, is usually construed as a kind of auxiliary forming with the infinitive verb phrase. (Two or more words used as a single verb.)

Ought, always followed by the infinitive with *to* expressed, is construed in the same way. (Compare "I *have* to go," "I *ought* to go" with "I *must* go," "I *should* go," *must* and *should* being used as auxiliaries.)

Need and *dare*, transitive verbs, when followed by the infinitive with or without *to*, are construed as transitive with the infinitive as the object.

Note.—*Dare* and *need* (implying necessity or obligation), without the terminal *s*, may be used in the third person, singular number of the present tense, provided that they are not followed by the preposition *to*, used as a part of the infinitive; as, "He *dare* not go;" "*Dare* he go?" "He *need* not go;" "*Need* he go?" The use of the preposition *to* is optional in many instances, but, as implied, when used, the presence of the terminal *s* is obligatory; as: "He *dars* to think for himself;" "He *needs* to study."

THE COMPLEMENT.

In distinction from the terms *predicate complement* and *objective complement*, the term *com-*

plement will be used, in connection with special verb forms.

The infinitive and the gerund formed from the verb "to be," require a noun, a pronoun, or an adjective (or the equivalent of a noun or an adjective) to complete their meaning. The word that completes the meaning of an infinitive or a gerund, is called the *complement*.

The infinitive and the gerund require a complement, because they have a verb nature as well as a noun nature. As nouns they are used either as subjects or as objects or as predicate complements; as verbs, they require complements to complete their meaning.

To be a *teacher* was his desire.

His desire was to be a teacher.

Being a *teacher* means being *diligent*.

Note.—In the first sentence, the complement completes the meaning of the infinitive and together they form the subject.

In the second sentence, the complement completes the meaning of the infinitive, and together they form the predicate complement.

In the third sentence, the first complement (*teacher*) completes the meaning of the gerund and together they form the subject; the second complement (*diligent*, adj.) completes the meaning of the gerund, and together they form the objective complement.

Case of the Complement After the Infinitive and the Gerund, Formed from the Verb "to Be."

The following are the rules that apply:

Rule 1. The complement, when a noun or

pronoun, is in the nominative case except when the infinitive is used purely as a verb.

No one thought of its being *he*.

It was supposed to be *I* whom he meant.

In the sentence, "No one thought of its being *he*," *of its being he* is an adverbial modifier of *thought*; *he* is the complement of *being* and is in the nominative case.

In connection with the gerund *being*, note that as a noun, it is the object of the preposition *of*; and that as a verb, it takes a complement in the pronoun *he*; *its* is in the possessive case according to the following rule: A noun or a pronoun preceding a gerund must be put in the possessive case.

In the construction, "It was supposed to be *I*," *to be I* is the predicate complement. *I* is the complement of *to be* and is in the nominative case.

Note that the complement, when a noun, in each instance is in the nominative case. Unlike pronouns, however, the form of the noun is not affected by either the nominative or the objective case.

Rule 2. The complement of the infinitive, when a noun or pronoun, is in the objective case when the infinitive is used purely as a verb.

I supposed it to be *him*.

They supposed him to be *me*.

In the sentence "I supposed it to be *him*," *it to be him* is the object of *supposed*; *him* is the predicate complement of *to be* in the infinitive noun clause, *it to be him*.

The complement is in the objective case when the infinitive is a verb in order to conform to the following rules:

(a) The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case.

(b) The noun or pronoun that follows the verb "to be" is in the same case as the noun or pronoun that precedes the verb "to be."

Note.—The verb “to be” while followed in some constructions by the objective case *does not take an object*. As indicated, the word that follows it is its *complement*, which is always in the same case as the word that precedes it.

Compare the following constructions with one another and note that all are correct:

- I supposed that *it* was *I* whom you meant.
- I supposed that *it* was *he* whom you meant.
- I supposed that *it* was *she* whom you meant.
- I supposed *it* to be *me* whom you meant.
- I supposed *it* to be *him* whom you meant.
- I supposed *it* to be *her* whom you meant.

In the first three constructions, the pronoun “it,” which precedes the verb “was,” (past tense of the verb “to be”), is in the nominative case because it is the subject of the verb “was;” hence, the pronouns “I,” “he,” and “she,” which follow the verb are correct, because they are in the nominative case. Note that with the exception of the infinitive form of the verb “to be” (when used as a verb), the noun or pronoun that precedes or follows it, is always in the nominative case; as, for example, “*It is I,*” “*It is she,*” “*It is we,*” “*It is they.*”

In the second three constructions, “it,” being the subject of the infinitive “to be,” is in the objective case. Note that *me*, *him*, and *her* are objective forms.

CLAUSES

Clauses are of two kinds: **principal** and **subordinate**.

1. A **principal** clause is one that does not depend on any word; as, "*John studies English, and George studies French.*"

2. A **subordinate** clause is one that depends on some word in the principal clause; as, "I will go *when he comes.*"

When a sentence contains at least two principal clauses, the sentence is compound, and the clauses are called **co-ordinate**.

When a sentence contains but one principal clause, and one or more subordinate clauses the sentence is complex, and the principal clause is frequently termed the **independent**, and the subordinate, the **dependent** clause.

Co-ordinate Clauses

Two or more clauses in a sentence that perform the same office are called **co-ordinate**.

(a) As co-ordinate clauses perform the same office in a sentence, one clause is as important as another, and so the clauses are called *principal* or *independent*.

(b) A sentence containing two or more principal or independent clauses, is called a *compound* sentence.

(c) The co-ordinate clauses of a compound sentence are connected by co-ordinate conjunctions.

Subordinate Clauses

The subordinate clause in a sentence is used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. When it is used as a noun, it is called a **noun clause**;

when it is used as an adjective, it is called an **adjective clause**; when it is used as an adverb, it is called an **adverbial clause**.

The Noun Clause

A **noun clause** is a clause that is used as a noun.

A noun is always used as either a subject, an object (direct or indirect), an appositional element, or a predicate complement; hence, a noun clause is always used in the same way, namely, as a subject, an object (direct or indirect), an appositional element, or a predicate complement.

Words Used to Introduce the Noun Clause

Noun clauses may be introduced by relative pronouns, compound relative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, conjunctive adverbs, or subordinate conjunctions.

1. A noun clause may be introduced by the relative pronoun *who*, *which*, or *what*.

I do not know *who he is*.

I cannot tell *which you wrote*.

Things are not always *what they seem*.

In connection with the pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what*, note that *what* is equivalent to *that which*, and that the antecedent is distinctly implied in the word; but *who* and *which* cannot be so expanded, and, hence, it would seem that they should not be classed as relative pronouns in these constructions. They cannot be treated as interrogative pronouns, for the reason that they are not used interrogatively in these sentences. The difficulty is overcome somewhat by treating each as a relative pronoun with an antecedent *understood*.

2. A noun clause may be introduced by the compound relative pronoun *whoever*, *whosoever*,

whomever, whichever, whichsoever, whatever, or whatsoever. (The antecedent is regarded as understood.)

1. *Whoever* comes first will be first served.
2. *Whosoever* would be happy must be just.
3. I will take *whichever* you prefer.
4. I will give *whatever* he asks.
5. I will take *whoever* wishes to go.

Note.—In connection with the last sentence, note that *whoever* is nominative because it is the subject of *wishes* and not the object of *take*. (The noun clause introduced by *whoever* is the object of *take*.)

3. A noun clause may be introduced by the interrogative pronoun *who, which, or what*.

1. I asked, "*Who* is there?"
2. He said, "*Which* will you have?"
3. I inquired, "*What* do you wish?"

4. A noun clause may be introduced by the conjunctive adverb *where, when, whence, whither, whether, how* or *why*, etc.

1. I do not know *where* he is.
2. I cannot tell *when* he will come.
3. We do not know *whence* it cometh nor *whither* it goeth.
4. I do not know *how* to do this.
5. I cannot tell *why* he comes.

5. A noun clause may be introduced by the subordinate conjunction *that*.

1. *That* you are in the wrong is evident.
2. I know *that* he will come.

Uses of the Noun Clause

The noun clause is always used as a noun; hence, it follows that it must always perform the

function of either the subject, the object (direct or indirect), the predicate complement, or an appositional element; thus:

1. The noun clause may be used as the subject.

That she was ill was evident.

Note.—Sometimes the pronoun “it” is used as the subject when the real subject is a noun clause, as in the sentence, “It is true *that honesty is the best policy.*” Here the real subject is the noun clause “that honesty is the best policy,” “it” being a mere expletive, or filler. Some grammarians would diagram “it” as the subject, with the noun clause as the appositional element; others would make the noun clause the real subject.

2. The noun clause may be used as the direct object.

I know *that he is honest.*

3. The noun clause may be used as an indirect object (object of a preposition and indirect object of a verb).

He did not listen to *what was said.*

4. The noun clause may be used as the predicate complement.

Things are not always *what they seem.*

Note.—In such constructions as “I am glad *that I have seen her,*” the noun clause is regarded as explanatory; that is, as explanatory of the predicate (explaining why the speaker is glad); hence, it should be regarded, for the time being, as an adverbial clause and modifier of the adjective “glad” (or of the idea expressed by “am glad”) in the same way that the infinitive phrase in the sentence, “I am glad *to have seen her*” is regarded as the adverbial modifier of “glad” (or of *am glad*).

5. The noun clause may be used as an appositional element.

The fact *that the weather was disagreeable*, did not prevent the members from attending the meeting.

Analysis of Constructions That Contain a Noun Clause

A sentence that contains a **noun clause** is always a complex sentence, of which the noun clause is the subordinate clause, while the entire construction is usually regarded as the principal clause. Thus, in the sentence, "That the earth is round has been proved," the subordinate clause is *that the earth is round*, while the principal clause is the entire sentence, "*that the earth is round has been proved.*"

Note.—Sometimes, the verb in the noun clause is modified by an adverbial clause, thus making the subordinate clause complex; for example, in the sentence, "I think that he will come if he is in the city," the principal clause is, "I think that he will come," while the subordinate clause consists of the noun clause, "That he will come" and the adverbial clause "if he is in the city," which modifies the verb "will come."

The Adjective Clause

An adjective clause is used as an adjective, and, hence, it always modifies a noun.

Words Used to Introduce the Adjective Clause

The adjective clause may be introduced by the relative pronoun *that*, *who*, or *which*.

The man *that was here yesterday*, called again to-day.

(a) A relative clause introduced by "*that*" is called a restrictive clause, for the reason that it limits or restricts the meaning of that which it

modifies. A relative clause introduced by "*who*" is non-restrictive when it adds a new fact.

(b) While "*who*" or "*which*" is often used even when the sense is restrictive, *that* should never be used unless the sense is restrictive. When instead of the relative pronoun *who* or *which*, the words *and I*, *and she*, *and he*, *and it*, etc., can be substituted, the pronoun *who* or *which* may be used; as, "I have returned the books, *which* I found very interesting" (*and I* found them very interesting).

(c) When the clause is introduced by the relative pronoun *what*, the clause is used, not as a modifier, but as a noun. Thus, in the sentence, "I do not know what to say," *what to say* is a noun clause used as the object of the verb *know*.

(d) The relative clause may be introduced by *as*. "*As*" ordinarily an adverb or a conjunction, is used as a relative pronoun after "*such*," "*same*," and "*many*." Thus:

Tears, *such as* Angels weep, burst forth.

The adjective clause may be introduced by the conjunctive adverb *where*, *when*, or *why*. Thus:

1. This is the place *where the battle was fought*.
2. I do not know the time *when I shall start*.
3. I do not know the reason *why he called*.

Note that if the noun "*reason*" were omitted, then the clause "*why he called*" would be a noun clause, instead of an adjective clause, for "*why he called*" would be used as the object of the verb "*know*," whereas, it now modifies the noun "*reason*."

(Same principle applies to sentences 1 and 2.)

Note that in all these sentences, the adjective clause modifies the noun in the same way that adjectives do, while in the following sentences, the clauses introduced by *where*, *when*, and *why*, are noun clauses used as objects of verbs:

1. I know *where the battle* was fought.
2. I do not know *when I shall go*.
3. I know *why he called*.

The Adverbial Clause

An adverbial clause is used as an adverb, and, hence, it always modifies either a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

1. The adverbial clause may be introduced by a conjunctive adverb; thus:

He called *when I was ill*. (Clause is equivalent to an adverb of time.)

He called *while you were away*. (Clause is equivalent to an adverb of time.)

He is *as tall as I* (am). (Clause is equivalent to an adverb of degree.)

The following conjunctive adverbs are used to introduce adverbial clauses: *when*, *where*, *as*, *whenever*, *while*, *whence*, *why*, *wherein*, *whereby*, *wherefore*, *whereon*, *whereat*.

The adverbial clause may be introduced by subordinate conjunctions. (See THE CONJUNCTION, p. 192.)

Shall and Will: How to Use Them

Direct and Indirect Quotation

A *direct quotation* is one in which the exact language is reported. An *indirect quotation* is one in which the form of expression is slightly altered.

Direct Quotation.

He said, "I *will* be there without fail. (Promise.)

He says, "I *will* go." (Promise.)

Indirect Quotation.

He said that he *would* be there without fail. (Promise.)

He says that he *will* go. (Promise.)

Direct Quotation

(a) In direct quotation, the auxiliaries *shall* and *will* are used the same as in the DECLARATIVE forms.

(b) When the quotation is direct, the words quoted are preceded by a comma, and are placed within quotation marks. When the quotation is indirect, neither the comma nor the quotation marks are used.

(c) When the quotation is direct, the tenses of the verbs do not necessarily accord with each other. When the quotation is indirect, the tenses of the verbs do accord with each other, unless a universal truth is stated.

In following sentences, the statements express facts pertaining only to the individual:

Correct

She *says* that she *will* go. (Promise or willingness is expressed.)

He *said* that he *would* go.

In the following sentences, the statements express universal truths:

He *maintained* that the earth *moves*.

He *said* that only the good *are* happy.

Indirect Quotation

(*d*) In indirect quotations, when the subjects do not refer to the same person, the auxiliaries are used the same way as in the DECLARATIVE form; where the subjects refer to the same person, *shall* is used in all the persons to express simple futurity, and *will* is used in all the persons, to express promise or determination.

EXAMPLES

Subject nouns do not refer to the same person. (Auxiliaries are used the same as in the DECLARATIVE form.)

The teacher says that I *shall* succeed. (Futurity.)

The teacher says that the pupils *will* succeed. (Futurity.)

The teacher says that the pupils *shall* have a holiday. (Promise.)

Subject nouns refer to the same person. (*Shall* is used to express futurity, and *will*, to express promise or determination, in all three persons.)

The teacher says that he *shall* dismiss the pupils. (Futurity.)

The teacher says that he *will* give the pupils a vacation. (Promise.)

You say that you *shall* go abroad. (Futurity.)

You say that you *will* assist me. (Promise.)

Correct

He asked me whether I would go. (Indirect quotation.)

"He asked, "will you go?" (Direct quotation.)

Note that the mixture of direct and indirect quotation is always incorrect; as, "He asked me would I go."

Doubtful Futurity

In expressing *simple futurity*, *shall* is used in the first person, and *will* in the second and the third; as, "I shall go," "you will go," "he will go." In expressing *doubtful futurity* as in the

sentence, "I think that I shall go," the rule is the same as that in indirect quotation, and is as follows:

(a) In expressing futurity, when the subjects do not refer to the same person, the auxiliaries are used as in the DECLARATIVE form; when the subjects refer to the same person, *shall* is used throughout the construction.

In the following sentences, the subjects do not refer to the same person, and, hence, the auxiliaries are used the same as in independent constructions:

EXAMPLES

Simple Futurity. (Indirect Quotation.)

The teacher *says* that I *shall* succeed.

The teacher *says* that you *will* succeed.

The teacher *says* that the pupils *will* succeed.

Doubtful Futurity.

The teacher *thinks* that I *shall* succeed.

The teacher *thinks* that you *will* succeed.

The teacher *thinks* that the pupils *will* succeed.

In the following sentences, the subjects refer to the same person, and, hence, *shall* is used throughout the constructions

Simple Futurity.

The teacher *says* that he *shall* dismiss the pupils.

He *says* that he *shall* go abroad.

Doubtful Futurity.

The teacher *thinks* that he *shall* dismiss the pupils.

He *thinks* that he *shall* go abroad.

Direct Quotation, Indirect Quotation and Doubtful Futurity in Interrogative Sentences

In *interrogative* sentences, the same general rule that applies to the *declarative* form constructions, applies also to direct and indirect quotation and to doubtful futurity.

(a) The auxiliary that is required in the answer, must be used in the question, when the person spoken to decides the question or controls the speaker.

DIRECT QUOTATION

Did he say, "*Shall I go*"?

Did he say, "*Shall you go*"?

Did he say, "*Shall he go*"?

Did you say, "*Shall I go*"?

Did he say, "*Will you go*"?

Did you say, "*Will you go*"?

INDIRECT QUOTATION AND DOUBTFUL FUTURITY

The rules for interrogative constructions are the same as in declarative sentences.

(b) In indirect quotation, when the subjects do not refer to the same person, the auxiliaries are used the same as the DECLARATIVE form; when the subjects refer to the same speaker, *shall* is used in all the persons to express simple futurity, and *will* is used in all the persons to express promise or determination.

Thus: "The teacher says (or thinks) that the pupils *will* succeed," becomes "Does the teacher say (or think) that the pupils *will* succeed?" "The teacher says (or thinks) that he *shall* dismiss the pupils," becomes, "Does the teacher say (or think) that he *shall* dismiss the pupils?"

Contingent Futurity

In subordinate clauses after *if*, *though*, *although*, *when*, *until*, etc., *shall* (or *should*) is used in all three persons unless the subject is thought of as wishing or consenting, when *will* (or *would*) is correct.

EXAMPLES

Futurity.

If I *shall* find that I am in the wrong, I shall apologize.

If it *shall* appear that the prisoner is guilty, he will surely be punished.

Even though the prisoner *shall* be found guilty, he will not be punished.

Willingness.

If he *will* go, I will go too.

If you *will* attend to this matter I will pay you for the work.

Although we *will* consent to his going, we will not give him permission to remain away for an indefinite period.

In connection with the use of *shall*, in the foregoing sentences, to express *contingent* futurity, note that properly speaking, the auxiliary *should*, and not the auxiliary *shall*, is required. The use of *will*, however, in the second and third persons is required when the wishes of the persons referred to are considered.

The following sentences are in conformity with the modern usage of the language:

If he *comes*, I *shall* go. (Futurity.)

If he *comes*, I *will* go. (Willingness.)

If he *will* come (will be willing), I *shall* go. (Futurity.)

If he *should* (or were to) come, I *should* go. (Futurity.)

If he *should* come I *would* go. (Willingness.)

The employment of *shall*, however, is in accordance with the usage of the language when the subject is not thought of as wishing or consenting.

Request, Desire, Command

After request or desire, the auxiliary *will* is used when the assertion is direct and personal; *shall* when the assertion is indirect and impersonal.

The expression is indirect and impersonal when it is introduced by "it;" as, "It is requested;" "It was requested," etc.

EXAMPLES

In the following sentences, the assertion is direct and personal; hence, "will" is required:

I request that you *will* not leave the room.

I desire that you *will* give the matter immediate attention.

In the following sentences the assertion is indirect and impersonal; hence, "shall" be required:

It is requested that no person *shall* leave the room.

It is desired that every one *shall* be present.

In assertions where the third person is spoken of, "will" is the correct auxiliary, if the construction is not introduced by "it."

According to these instructions, the following sentences are correct:

I request that each one present *will* attend the meeting.

I desire that each one *will* give the matter immediate attention.

After command, the auxiliary "shall" is always required.

EXAMPLES.

I command that you *shall* leave the room.

I command that no one *shall* leave his seat.

SHOULD AND WOULD: HOW TO USE THEM

Direct and Indirect Quotations

In direct quotation, the auxiliaries *should* and *would* are used the same as in the DECLARATIVE form.

DIRECT QUOTATION

He said, "I *should* go if I were able." (Simple subjunctive futurity.)

He said, "If I were to go abroad I *should* study French." (Plan.)

He said, "If I were to eat this, I *should* be ill." (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

He said, "I *would* not go under any circumstances." (Determination.)

He said, "When I was a child I *would* study for several hours at a time." (Custom.)

He said, "I know that I *should* learn my lessons." (Duty or propriety.)

INDIRECT QUOTATION

In indirect quotation, when the subjects do not refer to the same person the auxiliaries are used the same as in *declarative* constructions; when the subjects refer to the same person, *should* is used in all three persons to express simple contingent futurity, plan, propriety, a condition beyond the control of the will as the case may be, and *would* is used in all three persons to express willingness, promise or determination.

Subject nouns do not refer to the same person.

The teacher said that I *should* succeed. (Contingent futurity.)

The teacher said that the pupils *should* learn their lessons. (Propriety.)

The teacher said that sometimes the pupils *would* study for several hours at a time. (Custom.)

The teacher said that if the pupils were to study too hard, they *would* be ill. (Condition beyond control of the will.)

The teacher said that if I were to eat this, I *should* be ill. (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Subject nouns refer to the same person.

The teacher said that he *should* dismiss the class. (Contingent futurity.)

The teacher said that he *would* give the pupils a vacation. (Promise.)

He said that when he was a child he *would* watch the clouds for hours at a time. (Custom.)

The teacher said that if he were to eat this he *should* be ill. (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

I said that if I were to go abroad, I *should* study French. (Plan.)

He said that if he were to go abroad, he *should* study French. (Plan.)

You said that you *would* not go under **any** circumstances. (Determination.)

Doubtful Futurity

In doubtful futurity, *should* and *would* are used the same as in direct and indirect quotation. Again, when past time is expressed, the verbs in both the principal and the subordinate clause must be in accordance with each other, as, "I *thought* that I *should* go;" "He *thought* that he *should* go;" when, however, it is the intention of the speaker to express in present time what he would do under certain conditions, the tenses do not accord. Thus; in the sentence, "I *thought* that I *should* go," past time is expressed in both the principal and the subordinate clause; while in the sentence, "I *think* that I *should* go if he would go with me," the speaker expresses in present time what he would do in the future under the condition named.

Past.

I *thought* that I *should* be able to see him, but I found that he had gone.

He *thought* that he *should* be able to go, but he found that he could not leave his office.

I *thought* that I *should* like to go.

He *thought* that he *should* like to go.

I *thought* that I *should* be ill.

Present.

I *think* that I *should* be able to see him if I were to call.

He *thinks* that he *should* be able to go if he were to be invited.

I *think* that I *should* like to go.

He *thinks* that he *should* like to go.

I *think* that I *should* be ill.

Note that in all such constructions as, "I think that I should like to go," there is a clause unexpressed, but understood; thus: "I *think* that I *should* like to go, if," etc.

Doubtful Futurity in Interrogative Sentences

In direct and indirect quotation and doubtful futurity, the same rule that applies to the *declarative* form, applies to interrogative sentences.

DIRECT QUOTATION

Did he say, "*Should* I go"?

Did he say, "*Should* the pupil go"?

Did you say, "*Should* I go"?

Did you say, "*Should* the pupil go"?

Did he say, "*Would* he go"?

Did you say, "*Would* you go"?

Note that the question "*Should* I go," would be answered "You *should* (or *should* not) go;" "*Should* the pupil go?" would be answered, "The pupil *should* (or *should* not) go;" "*Would* he go?" would be answered, "He *would* (or *would* not) go."

INDIRECT QUOTATION AND DOUBTFUL FUTURITY

The rules are the same as in declarative sentences.

Subjects Do Not Refer to the Same Person Questions

Did the teacher say (or think) that pupils *should* prepare their lessons at home? (Propriety.)

Did the teacher say (or think) that if the pupils were to study hard, they *would* become ill? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Did the teacher say (or think) that the pupils *would* study harder if they had more time? (Contingent futurity.)

Answers

The teacher said (or thought) that the pupils *should* prepare their lessons at home. (Propriety.)

The teacher said (or thought) that, if the pupils were to study hard, they *would* become ill. (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

The teacher said (or thought) that the pupils

would study harder if they had more time. (Contingent futurity.)

Subjects Refer to the Same Person

Questions

Did the teacher say (or think) that he *should* assist his pupils as much as possible. (Propriety.)

Did the teacher say (or think) that he *should* like to assist his pupils? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Did the teacher say (or think) that he *should* go abroad if he could leave his pupils. (Contingent futurity.)

The teacher said (or thought) that he *should* assist his pupils as much as possible. (Propriety.)

The teacher said (or thought) that he *should* like to assist his pupils. (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

The teacher said (or thought) that he *should* go abroad if he could leave his pupils. (Contingent futurity.)

Note.—The same rule applies to the second person; thus: "Did you say (or think) that you *should* assist" (*like* or *go*)? Answer.—"Yes; I said or thought I *should* assist" (*like* or *go*).

In the first person, *should* or *shall* is always required in interrogative sentences, regardless of the auxiliary used in the answer; thus:

Should I obey his wishes? (Propriety.)

Should I be ill if I were to eat this? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Should I become fatigued if I were to go? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Did you say (or think) that I *should* be able to go? (Contingent futurity.)

Did you say (or think) that I *should* assist my parents? (Propriety.)

Did you say (or think) that I *should* like him? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Should I like her if I knew her? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Should I regret this? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Answers

You *should*.

You *would* be ill, etc.

You *would*, etc.

I said (or thought) that you *would* be able to go.

I said (or thought) that you *should* assist them.

I said (or thought) that you *would* like him.

You *would*, etc.

You *would* not.

(b) In indirect quotation or in doubtful futurity the same rules obtain.

Do you think that I *should* like it?

I think that you *would*.

(c) The same rules apply to "shall" in the first person.

(d) In subordinate clauses after *if*, *though*, *although*, *when*, *until*, etc., *should* (like *shall*) is used in all three persons unless the subject is thought of as wishing or consenting, when *would* (or *will*) is correct.

Futurity

If I *should* (were to) go to the city, I *should* call on him.

Even if you *should* (or were to) fail, you *would* not become discouraged.

If he *should* (or were to) call in my absence, tell him to call tomorrow.

Even if he *should* (or were to) fail, he *would* not become discouraged.

In the sentences given above, note that the auxiliary in the principal clause also takes the subjunctive form when it refers to what is future and contingent. The same rule obtains when the reference is to what is past, uncertain, or denied; as, "If I *had* known it, I *should* not have come." "If he *had* called, he *would* not have seen me."

Request, Desire, Command

After request or desire, the auxiliary *would* (like *will*) is used when the assertion is direct and personal; *should* (or *shall*) when the assertion is indirect and impersonal.

See SHALL AND WILL.

Note.—The expression is indirect and impersonal when it is introduced by “it;” as, “It is requested;” “It was requested,” etc.

Idiomatic Uses

“HAD” FOR “SHOULD (OR WOULD) HAVE”

(a) In idiomatic use, the indicative form is often used when the subjunctive might be expected.

Indicative (Idiomatic)

I *had* given up in despair, *had* I not received assistance.

Many deeds, which *had* otherwise appeared noble, were shown to be ignoble.

Subjunctive

I *should* have despaired if I had not received assistance.

Many deeds, which *would* otherwise have appeared noble, were shown to be ignoble.

2. “Would” in the expression of a wish.

(b) In poetry (and in Anglo-Saxon), “would” is sometimes used in the sense of wish.

WOULD

Would that I had gone.

Would that I had never seen this day.

WISH

I *wish* that I had gone.

I *wish* that I had never seen this day.

3. Omission of “if.”

(c) “If,” followed immediately by a subject noun or pronoun, is frequently omitted.

Omission of If

Were he in the wrong, he should be punished.

Had he *been* present, this would not have occurred.

Presence of If

If he were in the wrong, he should be punished.
If he had been present.

It Should Seem; It Would Seem

(d) "It should seem" and "It would seem" are often used for "It seems," or "I think" as being more modest forms of expression.

It *would seem* that he ought to go under the circumstances.

It *seems* (or I think) he ought to go under the circumstances.

(e) "It *should* seem" conveys a slightly different meaning from "It *would* seem," The former means, "It seems that it should be so," while the latter means merely "It seems." The expression "It *would* seem" is more commonly employed than is, "It *should* seem." There is a growing tendency, however, to use "It *would* seem" when "It *should* seem" is required.

Would Say or Should Say; Will Say or Shall Say

"Would say" expresses contingent willingness or a wish to say; "should say" expresses contingent futurity, propriety, plan; "will say" expresses willingness, or determination, or promise in the immediate future to say; "shall say" expresses simple futurity.

May and Might: How To Use Them

In their special uses *may* and *might* express permission or possibility; in their general uses power, ability, concession, and the like. The uses of *may* and *might*, however, are much involved; the notions of power, ability, permission, contingency, etc., passing into one another; *may* especially is often used with more or less indefiniteness.

Note in connection with *may* and *might* that, while their distinctive office is to express *permission* or *possibility*, while that of *can* and *could* is to express *ability*, the latter meaning is some-

times expressed by *may* or *might*. Thus, it is common to use *may* in such constructions as, "I *will* give you the money so that you *may* pay the bill." Note that in this construction, *can* would express the same idea.

Again, *might* is used occasionally in the sense of *could* in such constructions as, "This sum *might* be set aside for general expenses," meaning that this sum *could* be so appropriated if it were to be regarded as feasible. Here the notion of ability passes into that of possibility.

CONJUGATION
Present Tense

	Singular	Plural
1st Person	I may go,	We may go.
2d Person	You may go,	You may go.
3d Person	He may go,	They may go.

Present Perfect Tense

	Singular	Plural
1st Person	I may have gone,	We may have gone.
2d Person	You may have gone,	You may have gone.
3d Person	He may have gone,	They may have gone.

Past Tense

Expressing Possible Future

	Singular	Plural
1st Person	I might go,	We might go.
2d Person	You might go,	You might go.
3d Person	He might go,	They might go.

Past Perfect Tense

	Singular	Plural
1st Person	I might have gone,	We might have gone.
2d Person	You might have gone,	You might have gone.
3d Person	He might have gone,	They might have gone.

The Uses of May and Might

(a) *May* and *might* express permission, *may* being used in the present, and *might* in the past tense.

May may express permission absolutely as in the sentence, "You *may* go," or it may express contingent permission as in the sentence, "You *may* go if the weather is pleasant."

Might, when used in indirect statement, may express absolute permission as in the sentence, "I told him that he *might* go," or it may express

contingent permission; as, "I told him that he *might go if he could find some one to accompany him*," in direct statement *might* always expresses *contingent* permission; as, "You *might go if you could find some one to accompany you*."

(Note in connection with the last that the notion of permission seems to pass into that of possibility.)

(b) *May* and *might* express possibility.

Present	Past
I <i>may go</i> . (Present tense.)	I <i>might go</i> . (Past tense expressing possible future.)
He <i>may have gone</i> . (Present perfect tense.)	He <i>might have gone</i> . (Past perfect tense)

Note that there is no essential difference between the use of *may* and that of *might*, the words being used according to the tense form required. Thus, the present tense form in the sentence, "I *may go if I can find some one to accompany me*," becomes the past tense form in the sentence, "I *might go if I could find some one to accompany me*." Note that the auxiliaries "may" and "might" correspond in their tense forms to the auxiliaries "shall" and "should;" thus:

Present	Past
If he comes, I <i>shall go</i> .	If he were to come, I <i>should go</i> .
If he comes, I <i>may go</i> .	If he were to come, I <i>might go</i> .

Note that, in these sentences, *shall* and *should* convey the meaning of specified acts to be performed under specified conditions, while *may* and *might* express the mere *possibility* of future acts to be performed.

Note that *may* and *might* often appear to be interchangeable in expressing the same tense, but when this is the case, there is an ellipsis of a contingent clause, which shows that *may* and *might* express different tenses. Thus, in the sentences, "I *may go after all*," there is an ellipsis of a clause

in the present tense; as, if one were to imply, "I *may* go if he comes;" while, in the sentence, "I *might* go after all," there is an ellipsis of a clause in the past tense expressing a contingent future; as, "I *might* go if he were to come."

(c) *May* and *might* are sometimes used to express purpose or concession.

Present

He studies in order that he *may* learn. (Purpose.)

He *may* desert me, yet will I never forsake him. (Concession expressed by "may;" determination, by "will.")

Past

He studied in order that he *might* learn. (Purpose.)

He *might* desert me, yet would I never forsake him. (Concession expressed by "might;" determination by "would.")

(d) *Might* is occasionally used somewhat in the same way that *should* is used when expressing propriety or duty.

Should

I think that you *should* do this for me.

Might

I think that you *might* do this for me.

(e) *May* and *might* are sometimes used to express a wish.

Present

It is my wish that you *may* succeed.

May you live long and prosper.

NOTE.—In the sentence, "Oh, that I *might* see her once again," "might" is used similarly to "would" in the sentence, "Oh, *would* that he were here"

Past

It was my wish that you *might* succeed.

Oh, that I *might* see her once again!

(f) *May* is sometimes used to express chance.

Be that as it *may* (that is, as it may happen to be.)

What *may* be your name?

Come what *may*, I shall not give you up.

NOTE.—These uses may be classed under possibility.

As and Its Uses

"As" is employed as an adverb, a conjunction, or a relative pronoun.

NOTE.—In some of its uses, "as" seems to have the function of a preposition; but, inasmuch as constructions in which this use occurs, can be expanded so as to show

the conjunctive nature of "as," its function as a preposition will not be recognized in this exposition.

1. "As" As an Adverb

"As" may be used as an adverb followed by *as* used as a conjunction. "I am *as* tall as you" (are tall).

The first "as" is an adverb; the second, a conjunction, connecting the subordinate clause, "You are tall," with the principal clause, "I am as tall."

In connection with the use of "as" in making comparisons, note that "as" is used when the comparison is equal; "so" when it is unequal. Thus: "I am *as* tall as you;" "She is not *so* tall as I."

2. "As" As a Conjunction

"As" may be used as a conjunction to express degree, quantity, manner, and the like. It always introduces a subordinate clause.

Sentences in which "as" is employed as a conjunction are frequently elliptical, but the conjunctive nature of "as" can be readily seen by expanding the subordinate clause that it introduces. Thus, the following sentences, when expanded, show the nature of "as" as a conjunction.

Conjunction "As" Following Its Correlative

"As" (Adv.) in the Comparison of
Equals

Elliptical Form

"You may depend upon it, there are *as* good hearts to serve men in palaces *as* in cottages."

"Had I read *as* much *as* others I might have been *as* ignorant."—*Hobbs*.

"Jesus Christ pours out a doctrine beautiful *as* the light, sublime *as* Heaven, and *as* true *as* God."—*Theo. Parker*.

"Things that never happen are *as* much realities to us in their effect *as* those that are accomplished."—*Dickens*.

Expanded Form

"You may depend upon it, there are *as* good hearts to serve men in palaces *as there are* good

hearts to serve men in cottages."

"Had I read *as much as* others *have read*, I might have been *as ignorant*."

"Jesus Christ pours out a doctrine (as) beautiful *as* the light *is beautiful*, sublime *as* Heaven *is sublime*, and true *as* God *is true*."

"Things that never happen are *as much* realities to us in their effects *as* those that are accomplished *are real*."

Conjunction "As" Following Its Correlative "So" (Adv.) in the Comparison of Unequals

Elliptical Form

"Success in life is a matter not *so much* of talent or opportunity *as* of concentration and perseverance."

"There is nothing *so* strong or safe in any emergency of life *as* simple truth."—*Dickens*.

"The love of man in his maturer years is not *so much* a new emotion *as* a revival and concentration of all his departed affections for others."
—*Bulwer*.

Expanded Form

"Success in life is a matter not *so much* of talent or opportunity *as it is* of concentration and perseverance."

"There is nothing *so* strong or safe in any emergency of life *as* simple truth *is strong or safe*."

"The love of man in his maturer years is not *so much* a new emotion *as it is* a revival and concentration of all his departed affections for others."

In all the sentences given above, note that "so" is an adverb and that "as" is a conjunction.

"As" in Company with Other Words, Forming a Phrase Conjunction

(a) The expressions "as soon as," "as long

as," "as far as," and the corresponding phrases, "so soon as," "so long as," "so far as," may be regarded as phrase conjunctions; that is, groups of words used as single conjunctions. Of course they are resolvable into the component parts of an adverb (*as* or *so*), an adjective or an adverb (*soon*, *long*, *far*), and a conjunction *as*.

(b) *As far as*, *as soon as*, *as long as* are usually interchangeable with *so far as*, *so soon as*, *so long as*; but if the extent or degree usually implied in these phrases is to be emphasized, however slightly, *so* is used preferably to *as*.

The following are the uses of these phrases:

EXAMPLES

"We said of conduct that it is the simplest thing in the world *as far as* knowledge is concerned, but the hardest thing in the world *so far as* doing it is concerned."

"Therefore, we fulfill the law of our being *so far as* our being is aesthetic and intellective, as well as *so far as* it is moral."

In the first sentence *as far as* is equivalent in meaning to the phrases "with respect to" or "in relation to;" in the second sentence, there is a distinct reference to and limitation of extent conveyed in the phrase, "*as far as*." In brief, when in place of the phrase "*as far as*" the phrase *with respect to* or *in relation to* can be substituted, "*as far as*" is correctly used; but when the extent or degree is to be emphasized, "*so far as*" is correctly used.

"In so far as" is often used in the sense of "so far as," but "in" is superfluous in this connection. Thus, in the sentence, "*In so far as* I am concerned you need not hesitate to refuse to go," *in* is redundant.

I shall stay *as long as* I can.

So long as a person minds his own affairs, he will have no trouble with his neighbors.

Note.—As has been indicated, “so” may be substituted for “as” if the extent or degree is to be emphasized. In the sentences introduced by “so far as,” “so long as,” “so soon as,” “as” is often used instead of “so,” even by good speakers; but, as has been indicated, “so” is preferable when the extent or degree implied is to be emphasized.

“As” As a Conjunctive Adverb

(a) “As” introducing a subordinate clause, in many constructions, is not only a conjunction but also an adverb; for this reason, in constructions of this kind, “as” is called a conjunctive adverb. Thus, in such sentences as, “I am as interested in my studies *as* I have always been,” the second “as” is not only a conjunction, connecting the subordinate clause with the principal, but also an adverb, modifying the verb in the subordinate clause in the same way that the first “as” modifies the verb in the principal clause.

(b) Sometimes there is an omission of so many words that “as” is regarded as connecting merely words instead of clauses; just as the conjunction “and” is regarded as connecting words in the sentence, “Children *laugh* and *play*,” instead of clauses as “Children laugh and children play.”

Thus:

(1) “As,” through ellipsis of subject and verb, may connect an adverb in a subordinate clause with an adverb in the principal clause.

“Human nature is the same *here as elsewhere*.”

“As” seemingly connects the adverb “here” with the adverb “elsewhere;” but, by expanding the construction, we find that “as” virtually connects an elliptical subordinate clause, (as) “it is elsewhere” with a principal clause, “Human nature is the same here.”

(2) “As” may be used to connect a noun in a subordinate clause with a noun or pronoun in the principal clause to which it is opposed.

I like you *as* a friend.

I look upon him *as* an enemy.

In these sentences, there is an ellipsis of both subject and verb. Thus, "I like you *as* I like a friend;" "I look upon him *as* I look upon an enemy" (or *as* I should look upon an enemy if I had one").

Note.—In both these sentences, the noun in the subordinate clause is in the objective case.

In order to determine the case of the noun or pronoun following "*as*," it is necessary only to expand the construction by supplying the omitted verb or the subject and the verb, as the case may be. Thus, in the sentence, "I like you *as well as* he," there is an ellipsis of the verb *does*; thus, "I like you *as well as* he *does*;" in the sentence, "I like you *as well as* him," there is an ellipsis of both subject and verb; thus, "I like you *as well as* I *do* him."

(3) "*As*" may be used to connect an appositional noun with a word to which it is apposed.

Washington *as* a general was great.

His success *as* a writer was unprecedented.

His career *as* a soldier was brilliant.

Note.—In such constructions as these, "*as*" has the force of a phrase preposition (two or more words used as a single preposition), meaning "in the capacity of," but it is better to regard it as a connective, for the reason that to regard "*as*" as a preposition would put the appositional noun in the objective case even when it is virtually nominative. Thus in the sentence, "Washington *as* a general was great," "general" should be regarded as in the same case as "Washington;" hence, "*as*" must be construed as a conjunction. In such constructions as "His success *as* a writer;" "His career *as* a teacher;" there is an ellipsis of the noun, in each case. Thus, "His success *as* a writer's success;" "His career *as* a teacher's career;" but to avoid confusion, and because the possessive sign is dropped, the appositional word (*career* or *success*), is regarded as nominative.

It is difficult to expand sentences of this kind so as to form a principal and a subordinate clause, as the meaning is better expressed in the elliptical clause. Thus: "Washington was great *as* a general is great," or "His success was unprecedented *as* a writer's success is unprecedented," does not convey the meaning so clearly as does the elliptical construction.

(4) "As" may be used to connect an infinitive modifier in a subordinate clause with a word in the principal clause that precedes it; "I am not so foolish *as* to believe that."

When the infinitive follows "as," its function can be readily ascertained by expanding the construction. Thus, the sentence, "I am not so foolish *as* to believe that," becomes, when expanded, "I am not so foolish *as* I should be foolish to believe that." It can easily be seen that the infinitive modifies the adjective "foolish," or the thought expressed by "should be foolish." In constructions of this kind, "as" may be parsed as a conjunction connecting the adverbial modifier with the word that it modifies.

3. "As" As a Relative Pronoun

After *such*, *same*, and *many*, "as" may be always construed as a relative pronoun; that is, as a word used both as a pronoun and as a conjunction at the same time.

Note in this connection that as a pronoun, "as" would be used as either a subject, an object, or a predicate complement, as the construction would permit, and, at the same time, it would be a conjunction in that it would connect the subordinate with the principal clause.

No *such* person *as* he lives here.

There is no *such* word *as* fail.

This is the *same* *as* you gave me before.

He made *as many* mistakes *as* you did.

Note.—In the sentence, "No such person as he lives here," "as" is a relative pronoun; first, because it relates to the antecedent "person" and is used as the predicate complement (predicate nominative) in the subordinate clause "as he is" ("he is as"), and, secondly, because it is a conjunction connecting the subordinate clause "as he is" with the principal clause "No such person lives here."

Like and As

RULE.—Use *like* as an adverb or an adjective; *as* as a conjunction.

Note.—“Like” is followed by a noun or a pronoun with a preposition understood; as “He is *like* (unto) me.” “As” is followed by a noun or a pronoun and a verb (expressed or understood).

Her eyes are *like* stars. (Her eyes are like *unto* stars.)

Her face is *like* marble. (Her face is like *unto* marble.)

The grass is *like* velvet. (The grass is like *unto* velvet.)

The children are *like* their mother. (The children are like *unto* their mother.)

This feels *like* ice. (Like *unto* ice.)

She looks *like* a goddess. (Like *unto* a goddess.)

He looks *like* his father. (Like *unto* his father.)

This tastes *like* vinegar. (Like *unto* vinegar.)

This smells *like* perfume. (Like *unto* perfume.)

It sounds *like* thunder. (Like *unto* thunder.)

He works *as* I do. (As *I do*.)

He speaks *as* I do. (As *I do*.)

She sings *as* I do. (As *I do*.)

They do *as* we do. (As *we do*.)

Do *as* I do. (As *I do*.)

Note.—In connection with constructions like “He works *as* I do,” “He speaks *as* I do,” “She sings *as* I do,” *like* may be used instead of *as*; note, however, that if *like* is used, then it must be followed only by a pronoun or noun, which must be in the objective case; thus, “He works *like* me,” “He speaks *like* me,” “She sings *like* me.”

PHRASE PREPOSITIONS.

Some prepositions are made up of two or three words. They are then called *phrase prepositions*; as:

You must cut the cloth *according to* the goods.

I am going West *on account of* the illness of my brother.

He gained his point *by means of* stratagem.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS, POSITION OF.

When two or more personal pronouns in the singular number are connected by *and*, the second person precedes the first and the third, and the third person precedes the first; when the pronouns are used together in the plural number, the first person precedes the second and the third, and the second person precedes the third.

SINGULAR NUMBER.

You and *I* are going.

You and *he* are going.

You and *he* and *I* are going.

He and *I* are going.

If one (or more than one) of the subjects is a noun, the same rule obtains; thus:

You and your sister are both in the wrong.

He and his brother are in the office.

PLURAL NUMBER.

We and *you* are going.

We and *they* are going.

We and *you* and *they* are going.

You and *they* are going.

We and *you* do not agree.

We and *they* formerly lived in the same city.

You and *they* have been invited.

In the conclusion of social letters, the same rules should be observed; thus: "I hope to have the pleasure of seeing *you* and *your sister* on Monday." (Not *your sister and you*.)

Note.—In the case of personal pronouns connected by *or* or *nor*, some grammarians regard these pronouns as interchangeable in position; others, as being governed by special rules; but no distinction need be made in the case of pronouns connected by *or* from that of pronouns connected by *and*. (For construction of the verb following a compound subject connected by *or* or *nor*, see *Concord of Subject and Verb*, pp. 170, 171.)

INDEX

	PAGE
ADJECTIVE, Defined	1, 49
Classes :	
Qualifying	49, 54
Limiting	49, 55
Pronominal	49, 50
Demonstrative	49, 50
Comparison	51-55
ADVERB, Defined	2, 173
Classification	173
Comparison	174
Position	175-178
Concord with verb.....	179
Errors in use of.....	184-186
ARTICLE, Defined	1, 64
Definite and Indefinite.....	1, 64
Its Uses, Repetition of.....	64-66
"The," Special uses an as Adverb.....	64
As and Its Uses.....	318-325
CAPITALIZATION, Rules of.....	198-208
Geographical Names	205-208
Case:	
Defined	12, 272
Nominative	13, 272
Possessive	13-16, 274-276
Objective	13, 273
CLAUSE, Defined	256, 259, 296
Kinds:	
Principal	261-264, 296
Subordinate	262, 296
Adjective Clause	300-302
Adverbial Clause	302
Noun Clause	297, 298-300
COLLOQUIALISM, Defined	254
COMPLEMENT, Defined	258, 292
Kinds:	
Objective	292-295
Predicate	292-295
Modifiers of	74, 75, 294
After the Infinitive and the Gerund.....	293-295

CONCORD :	PAGE
Subject and Verb.....	164-173
Relative Pronoun and Verb.....	163, 164
Antecedent of	163, 164
Tenses	68-70, 76-115
Infinitive with Principal Verb.....	158-162
Auxiliary with Principal Verb.....	162, 163
CONJUNCTION, Defined	2, 192
Classes :	
Co-ordinate	192, 193
Subordinate	192
Correlatives	193
Position of	193-195
IDIOM, Defined	253
INTERJECTION, Defined	2, 197
List of	197
NOUN, Defined	1
Classification :	
Proper Noun	2-5
Common Noun	3, 5, 6
Compound Nouns	7, 8
Abstract Noun	3, 12, 264, 265
Collective Noun	3, 8, 11
Appositional Noun	266
Formation of Plural of Proper Nouns.....	3-5
Formation of Plural of Common Nouns.....	5-8
Irregular Plurals	266-267
Foreign Plurals	268, 269
Parsing of Nouns.....	277
Properties :	
Person	70, 266
Number	70, 266
Gender	266, 270, 271
Case	13-17, 266, 272-277
OBJECT	258, 273
PARTS OF SPEECH, Defined.....	1, 2
PHRASES, Defined	256
PREDICATE, Defined	257
Kinds :	
Simple and Complete.....	257, 258
Complex and Compound.....	263, 264, 300

	PAGE
PREPOSITION, Defined	2, 187
Used as an Adverb.....	187
Used as a Phrase.....	187
Case of Pronouns after Preposition.....	188
Nice Uses of.....	189-192
PRONOUN, Defined	1
Classifications:	
Personal	17
Simple and Compound.....	18
Declension of Simple Personal Pronoun.....	18
Reflexive and Emphatic Use of Compound Personal Pronoun	19
Case after Transitive Verbs	146-150
Case after the Verb "To Be".....	150-154
Case after the Gerund	155
Case before the Gerund	157
Interrogative	19
Declension of Interrogative Pronoun.....	19, 20
Relative	20-31
Demonstrative	43-49
Indefinite	32-43
Position of	326
PUNCTUATION	209
Complete Subject	209
Co-ordinate Clauses	214, 216
Adjective Modifier	217
Adjective Clause Introduced by Relative Pro- noun	218-224
Adjective Clause Introduced by Conjunctive Adverb	224
Adverbial Modifier	225-228
Intervening Adverbs, Adverbial Phrases, and Clauses	228, 229
Transposed Adverbial Phrases.....	229
Transposed Adverbial Clauses.....	230
Restricted and Non-Restricted Adverbial Clauses	231-234
Period	234
Interrogation Point	235
Use of Capitals in Interrogative Sentences.....	236
Exclamation Point	237
Special Rules for.....	237
Use of Capitals with.....	238
Exclamatory-Interrogative Sentences	238, 239
Dash	240
Parenthesis	241
Matter within the Parenthesis.....	241

PUNCTUATION— <i>Continued</i>	PAGE
Special Rules for.....	242
Independent Parenthesis	243
Brackets	243
Apostrophe	244
Quotation Marks	245
Quotation within a Quotation.....	246
With other Marks of Punctuation.....	246
Marks that precede the Quotation.....	247
Parenthetical, or Explanatory Words within a Quotation	248
Interrogation Point with Quotation Marks....	248
Exclamation Point with Quotation Marks....	248
Dash and Quotation Marks.....	248
Hyphen	249-252
SHALL AND WILL.....	125-130, 303-308
SHOULD AND WOULD.....	130-134, 308-315
SENTENCE, Defined	1, 254, 255
Kinds:	
Declarative	260
Interrogative	260
Imperative	260
Classification:	
Simple	261
Complex	261, 262
Compound	263, 264
SOLECISM, Defined	253
"SPLIT" INFINITIVE	182-184
SUBJECT, Defined	255
Simple and Complete.....	257
Compound	263, 264
Modifiers of	262
SYLLABICATION	251, 252
VERB, Defined	2
Properties:	
Voice	67
Mode	67
Tense	68
Classification:	
Conjugation of	75, 155
Transitive	75-79
Intransitive	155, 156
Person and Number.....	70
Transitive	72
Uses	72

VERB, Defined— <i>Continued</i>	PAGE
Intransitive	73
Uses	73
VERBALS, Defined	278, 282
Kinds:	
The Participle	278
Forms	278
Uses	279–281
The Gerund or Verbal Noun.....	282
Uses	282
Case before the Gerund.....	283–286
The Infinitive	287
Forms	287
Uses	287–295

WORDS, SPECIAL USES

	PAGE
A and An.....	64
Any One Else's.....	41
Apt, Likely, and Liable.....	57–60
At and In.....	189
Began and Begun.....	108
Beside and Besides.....	191
Both—And, Position of.....	194
But—And, Position of.....	194
Can and May.....	135
Come and Go.....	116
Dare and Dares	162
Dived and Dove.....	117
Elder, Eldest, Older, Oldest.....	55
Else's	41
Ever and Never.....	114
Either—Or, Position of.....	194
Drank and Drunk.....	108
Farther and Further.....	57
Fear and Afraid.....	63
Finished and Through.....	117
Give and Donate.....	119
Good and Well.....	60
Got and Gotten.....	118
Happened and Transpired.....	119
Have Ever	112

	PAGE
I Wish I Were.....	140, 141
If I Was and If I Were.....	138, 139
If It Is and If It Be.....	137, 138
In a Street or on a Street.....	190
Ill and Illy.....	62
In and Into.....	190
Informed and Posted.....	120
Intend and Propose.....	121
Lend and Loan.....	122
Lie and Lay.....	122
Like and As.....	324, 325
Likely and Liable.....	60, 62
May and Might	315-318
May and Can.....	135
Need and Needs.....	162
Not Merely—But, Position of.....	195
Not Only—But also, Position of.....	194
Of	191
Off	191
On	191
Other, When required.....	55, 56
Ought and Should.....	132
Proved and Proven.....	123
Rang and Rung.....	111
Sank and Sunk.....	111
Saw and Seen.....	112
Sit and Set.....	124
Shall and Will.....	125-130
Should and Would.....	130-134
Should and Ought.....	132
Shrank and Shrunk.....	114
Sprang and Sprung.....	115
Suppose and Expect.....	136
Suppose, Think, Guess.....	137
Swam and Swum.....	115
These Kinds and That.....	44
This and That Kind.....	44
Very Delighted, Pleased, etc.....	178, 179
Whom, Which, What, and That.....	20-31

CORRECT ENGLISH PUBLICATIONS

By Josephine Turck Baker

The Correct Word

How to Use it.

PRICE \$1.50

Correct Standardized Pronunciation

Several Thousand Words.

PRICE \$2.50

Correct English Complete Grammar and Drill Book

PRICE \$2.00

Correct Business Letter-Writing and Business English

PRICE \$1.50

The Correct Preposition

How to Use It.

PRICE \$1.25

The Literary Workshop

Helps for the Writer.

PRICE \$1.75

Your Every Day Vocabulary

How to Enlarge it.

COMPLETE (A-Z) PRICE \$2.00

Correct Synonyms and Antonyms

PRICE \$2.50

Correct English in the School

PRICE 75 CENTS

Correct English in the Home

PRICE \$1.00

Art of Social Letter-Writing

PRICE \$1.00

The Art of Conversation

PRICE 75 CENTS

How Can I Increase My Vocabulary?

PRICE 75 CENTS

A Year's Subscription to Correct English Magazine . . . \$2.50

CORRECT ENGLISH PRESS
Evanston, Illinois

BOOKS BY JOSEPHINE TURCK BAKER

The Correct Word

HOW TO USE IT

Complete Alphabetic List of What To Say and
What Not To Say

A language Encyclopedia in condensed handy
form for quick reference everywhere — in the
home, the office, and the school.

The Correct Word will tell you all about it

Price, \$1.50

Correct Business Letter Writing

Also includes general Business English. A book
for every business and professional man and
woman; for stenographers, etc. Not only gives all
correct forms, but tells what the ideal business
letter should be, supplies rules of punctuation,
and includes a complete alphabetical list of busi-
ness compound words, abbreviations, etc.

Price, \$1.50

CORRECT ENGLISH PRESS
Evanston, Illinois

